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GERMANY;

THE SPIRIT OF HER

HISTORY, LITERATURE, SOCIAL CONDITION,

AND

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NATIONAL ECONOMY;

ILLUSTRATED BY REFERENCE TO HER

PHYSICAL, MORAL, AND POLITICAL STATISTICS,

AND BY

COMPARISON WITH OTHER COUNTRIES.

BY

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PREFACE.

THE object of the following work is to make a small contribution to that science, which, however little it may be cultivated, is only second in importance to one other, —I mean the branch of knowledge which has at various times been designated Political Science, Political Philosophy, Polity, and State Economy. This is something quite distinct from, and, I venture to affirm, more interesting to society, than the limited study of Political Economy, which forms only a section of it, and which confines itself to the production and distribution of wealth. The science of State Economy, on the other hand, however much it has been neglected in this country, includes the whole internal regulation of states, their resources, their composition, and their means of improvement.

The country to which this volume is devoted has been often described by travellers of various tastes and talents, each working on his own peculiar plan, and pursuing his distinct path; but no work in our own language, and none with which I am acquainted in any other idiom, attempts to draw so comprehensive a picture of the entire land, or to afford, even within the limits of many volumes, so concentrated a view of its various features. The learned men, indeed, who spring so abundantly from that soil, have not neglected to portray, with the utmost minuteness, the country on which they cast so much

lustre, but their labours are scattered over an extensive, and not always accessible ground.

The eminent German writers who have illustrated the statistics, institutions, and geography of their own country, will pardon the omissions as well as the commissions of this work, which derives nearly all that is most valuable in its composition from their researches. They will discern imperfections in many parts which will not be equally perceptible to other eyes; but I am too well acquainted with their candour not to foresee that the desire which animates me of rendering justice to Germany, will ensure on their part a liberal interpretation, if not a welcome. Although the subject is far from being exhausted in this volume, and is not even fully treated in all its parts, yet by most English readers it will be found sufficiently large, if not abundantly long.

I am far from professing to present either a Geography or a Topography of Germany,—but my endeavour is rather to point out all that is most remarkable and characteristic in that country; all which distinguishes it from its neighbours; all which connects it with the political, literary, and social state of mankind; and all which marks its actual condition and prospects. Some readers will find a few things here which they did not expect, and others will look in vain for some objects which they hoped to discover. It was necessary to make a selection out of so vast a whole; and I have often sought rather for that which lies under the surface, and which is least current in the works of travellers and geographers, than for matters familiar to all, and readily available in other sources. The quality and the interest of materials have guided my choice much more than

their disposition to form a compact and uniform system. Thus I have omitted nearly all that relates to geology, natural history, and climate,—while I have indulged freely in most branches of statistics, and have even introduced prisons and mineral waters. An author can hardly be blamed for not doing that of which he does not announce any intention; those, in short, who feel an interest in Germany, will not quarrel with the topics which I have handled; and those who are indifferent to the subject, assuredly would not be satisfied with a description still more bulky, various, and prolix.

I shall be amply rewarded if this imperfect compilation should in any degree awaken the attention of Englishmen to a country which is allied to them by closer and more natural ties than any other section of Europe: to a people who harmonize with us in character, in many of their tastes, and in extraction; and who are disposed to regard us with a more fraternal eye than any other, except, perhaps, the Norwegians, Swedes, and Danes. Our literature has, in Germany, found its warmest admirers, and its ablest commentators; and long habits of peace have generated towards us an alliance of the heart, not dependant on treaties, and not capable of being stifled by decrees. In moments of calamity, to that quarter we must turn with the best probability of support,—if the sentiment of national gratitude does really exist at all; and in all seasons, those amongst us who may find it convenient to quit their own country, or to educate their children abroad, will there meet with the nearest equivalent for the home which they abandon, and will incur the least risk of corrupting the morals of their children, at the same time that they secure for them accomplishments,

which, if they must be sought elsewhere, can nowhere be so easily acquired as in Germany.

It would be tedious to enumerate the various sources to which I have had recourse; many are quoted in the text, or in notes, several have been obtained on the spot during a lengthened residence, and some from frequent oral and written communication with natives. Throughout, I have been most largely indebted to the "Statistical and Genealogical Almanac*," published annually at Weimar, originally edited by the late indefatigable Hassel, and continued in the most elaborate manner by Dr. Froriep, the chief of the remarkable "Industrie Comptoir" at Weimar, from which so many excellent productions have emanated. Stein's admirable "Manual of Geography and Statistics," has also contributed to my stores†.

For the chapter on prisons, embracing also some portion of criminal and moral statistics, I am indebted to the elaborate notes which Lagarmitte has appended to the Strasburg edition of "Julius on Prisons," published in 1831. Among the miscellaneous authorities to whom I must express my obligations, I may enumerate in general terms, the well-known names of Balbi, Bickes, Hassel, Malchus, Schnabel, Schön, Berghaus's "Journal‡," and the "Revue Germanique," which has ceased to exist.

The history of German literature, as far as the name

* "Genealogisch-Historisch-Statistisches Almanach." To the "Almanach de Gotha, published annually at Gotha, in the French language, I have also been occasionally indebted.

† "Handbuch der Geographie und Statistik." (Volume the second.)

‡ "Annalen der Erd-Völker und Staatenkunde," Berlin. We perceive with pleasure that Berghaus is now publishing a very elaborate systematic work, entitled "Allgemeine Länder und Völkerkunde."

of Schiller, is derived from lectures delivered at the university of Bonn, by the venerable and widely-known W. A. von Schlegel; this is the first time that they have appeared in any form, and I am indebted for them to the copious notes taken on the spot by my accomplished friend, Mr. George Toynbee, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons of London. To the talents and learning of this gentleman I must express my grateful acknowledgment for very much valuable assistance afforded in other parts of this work, and especially in the continuation of the history of German literature to the present day.

For the materials of the history of the nobility of Germany, I am indebted to the "Geschichte des Adels," of Rauschnick. The account of the mineral waters has been derived from the "Balneographisches Statistisch-Historisches Hand und Wörterbuch," by Von Zedlitz. The anecdotes of the orders of knighthood have been supplied by the "Almanach de Gotha." To the well-known repertory, the "Conversations-Lexikon," (eighth edition,) and to its Supplement, the "Conversations-Lexikon der Neuesten Zeit und Literatur," we have had frequent recourse.

The tables in the Appendix are not offered as positive facts, but merely as probable approximations to the real state of things; they can only be regarded as evidence afforded by various writers, collected at varying periods;—and, although more or less correct at the time at which they were at first severally published, may no longer be applicable to the existing condition of things. Statistical science is not to be depreciated because its results are not permanent; in

this respect it partakes of the alloy of almost all human sciences,—whose principles and whose facts are successively rejected or modified in each coming generation; yet the labours of our predecessors are not on that account useless, and those who subsequently work in the same mine profit by their errors, omissions, and exaggerations, and employ them as a safety-lamp to guide their steps in future researches.

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44, in the note, for *Untersachungen über Berolkerung*, read *Untersuchungen über Bevölkerung*.

55, line 10, for *monarchics*, read *monarchies*.

78, line 4 of Contents, for *Uzkleist*, read *Ux, Kleist*. Line 5, of the same Contents, for *Gesser*, read *Gesner*.

115, line 3 of Contents, for *Goöres*, read *Görres*.

142, line 22, after *they*, add *defy*.

144, line 24, for *genuine*, read *genial*.

162, last line of the text, for *Oranach*, read *Cranach*.

GERMANY.

SECTION I.

GERMANY CONSIDERED AS A WHOLE.

CHAPTER I.

Sketch of the History of Germany, from the earliest Period to the present Time.

THE Germany of the Romans comprised not merely the marshy and woody region bounded by the Rhine, Danube, Vistula, and the Baltic, but also Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finnland, Livonia, and Prussia. The races which inhabited these territories, resembled each other more or less in physical character, manners, and language, and were considered to have had a common origin. The ancient German was of huge stature; he had reddish hair and blue eyes; he was more tolerant of cold and hunger than of heat and thirst; loyal, faithful, and unsuspicious towards his friend, he well knew how to dissimulate and deceive when acting against an enemy; impatient of control, he regarded independence as the greatest earthly blessing, and would sooner sacrifice his life than lose his liberty. Unacquainted not only with luxuries, but with the common arts of life, such as agriculture, the use of metals, and writing, his principal means of existence were furnished by scanty herds, and the precarious booty of the chase. In time of peace he was given to drunkenness and gambling, and was accustomed to regard as divine suggestions, the plans which he formed whilst in a state of intoxication.

The government of these races was democratic; on the shores of the Baltic, it is true, the heads of several tribes were called kings, but regal power, as the moderns understand it, was never

exercised. There were general assemblies of the people, into which, at a certain age, every youth was received, and where, either at fixed times, or on extraordinary occasions, deliberations were held on the necessity of declaring peace or war, and on the choice of leaders. On such occasions, they expressed their approval of a proposition by striking their weapons on their shields, and their disapprobation by hollow murmurs. On occasions of imminent danger, several tribes often chose a single leader,—generally some chief noted for his bravery, whose example was more efficacious than his commands. The power of the military chieftain was in abeyance in time of peace, when the sole authorities were civil officers chosen in the general assemblies, to decide disputes and administer justice in particular districts. These officers were called princes, and had each a guard and a council composed of one hundred persons, but they had no power to condemn a freeman to death, or even to cause him to be imprisoned or beaten.

Bravery was held to be the cardinal virtue of the men of the ancient German tribes, and chastity of their women. Polygamy was only tolerated in the princes, and divorces were of rare occurrence. Adultery was an inexpiable offence, and of seduction no defence was admitted. The religious opinions of this people could only be crude and imperfect; they adored the sun, moon, fire and earth, but they attributed the supreme direction of human affairs to certain gods, the creatures of their imagination, whose will and decrees it was the duty of the priests to ascertain. They believed in a future world, where the courageous are rewarded by feasts, where they narrate their former exploits, and drink beer from immense horns, or from the sculls of their enemies.

The origin of the ancient Germans, though very obscure, is doubtless Asiatic: Joseph von Hammer calls them a Bactrio-Median race. They first became known to the Romans in the year before Christ 114, when they invaded the Alpine regions, defeated the consul Papirius Carbo, and carried on a successful war against the republic for many years, till they were completely routed by Marius, B. C. 101. At this period they were

called the Cimbri, but very little was known respecting their origin or character. The next notice we find of them is in the wars of Cæsar, who after he had conquered Gaul, repulsed Ariovistus, a leader of the Germans, who had invaded and wished to settle in that country. Cæsar twice crossed the Rhine, not with the view of making conquests in the German deserts, but for the purpose of protecting Gaul from ultra-rhenane incursions; in his later Gallic wars, however, he had Germans in his pay, as also in his campaign against Pompey. The first extensive invasion of Germany was made by Tiberius, who advanced as far as the Elbe; but the career of Roman conquest was shortly interrupted by the defeat, or rather destruction, of three legions under Quintilius Varus, by Herman the Cheruscian, in the ninth year before Christ. The Romans now repassed the Rhine, and never recovered their former ground, notwithstanding the efforts of the heroic Germanicus; indeed, they were shortly compelled to abandon the project of subjugating Germany.

In the first century after Christ, the relation of the Barbarians to the Romans was completely altered; the policy of the latter was no longer aggressive, and they were happy now to be able to defend themselves against the predatory attacks, which, in the intervals of civil war, the Germans were in the habit of making on their neighbours. In the year 220, new races, the Visigoths, Gepidi, and Herulians, appeared in Dacia, and about the same time we first hear of the Alemanni, a mixture of Teutonic tribes, to protect themselves against whom, the Romans erected the *Vallum Romanorum*, parts of which still remain between Jacthausen and Œhringen. As the empire became weaker, the Franks, who, together with the Alemanni, were the most powerful German people, advanced as far as Spain, and shortly afterwards completely conquered Gaul, where they formed a state of which the first king was Clovis, and which was afterwards to comprehend Germany, or at least the territories of the Saxons, Thuringians, and Alemanni. Clovis died in the year 511, and was succeeded by his son, Thierry I., who subjugated the Thuringians, made the Saxons tributary to his power, and gave laws to the Suabians and Bavarians. Thierry died in 534. The reigns

of his immediate successors are only remarkable for the bloody wars carried on between the Franks and the Saxons. The later Merovingian kings proved themselves to be a degenerate race; they led, for the most part, secluded lives of effeminacy and debauchery, and abandoned the duties of government to the mayors of the palace, who abusing their authority, shortly succeeded in placing themselves on the throne.

The last Merovingian king was Childeric III., who was deposed in 750, by Pepin, his mayor of the palace, who, after confining him in the abbey of St. Berten, assumed the reins of government, and founded the Carlovingian dynasty. By this time the political constitution of most of the German nations had made a considerable advance towards its modern state. The government of the Franks was monarchical, and the succession hereditary; the king made war or concluded peace without consulting the states; and new laws were issued at an assembly of the people, not so much that they might receive the consent of the latter, as in order that they might be solemnly established. The states were divided into two classes: the first was composed of bishops, abbots, dukes, and counts, who had a deliberative voice in all the assemblies; the second was composed of magistrates and inferior officers, whose only duty was to receive the orders of the other. Measures were proposed by the king through his referendary; the states of the first class deliberated on, and the sovereign decided respecting them; in the form of laws they were then communicated to the states of the second class, who were enjoined to execute them. The dukes were merely governors of provinces, who received orders from the sovereign; instead of a salary, they had a certain domain assigned them, from which they drew their revenues; for instance, the town of Wurzburg and its dependencies were the domain of the dukes of Franconia, and at a subsequent period, the circle of Wurtemberg was that of the dukes of Saxony. The counts, subordinate to the dukes, administered justice in districts which were called *pagi* or *gauen*—hence the names of provinces, Breisgau, Argau, Rheingau, &c. Royal commissaries—*missi dominici*—travelled through the duchies at stated times, to watch over the impartial administration of justice,

a duty which was also assigned to the bishops. Final appeals were made to the count palatine, who was also the judge of the court. Neither duke nor count was an hereditary title; but the sovereign very generally conferred the dignity on the sons or brothers of those who had previously been invested with it. Though the office of a count was purely civil, he commanded the troops of his district in time of war; he was called a margrave when the defence of a border territory was entrusted to him. After the counts, came the noble signors or barons, who owned the greatest part of the territory either as fiefs, or allodial estates. The last order was that of the ordinary nobles, who composed the force of the armies, and whose military services were repaid by small fiefs, which were only granted for life, and on condition that the vassal should take up arms on the demand of the prince. The rest of the nation was composed of artisans and of serfs: the latter had been reduced to a state of servitude by the fortune of war, or had entered it voluntarily, for a certain annual retribution.

Pepin, the son of Charles Martel, ascended the throne of the Merovingians in the thirty-sixth year of his age, after the pope, Zachary, had sanctioned his usurpation:—he was the first king of France who was crowned with ecclesiastical ceremonies. An intimate alliance existed between this prince and the pope, whom, in 755, he joined in chastising the enemy of the latter, Astolfus, king of the Lombards, notwithstanding that his states were decidedly opposed to his interference with Italian politics. Pepin carried on successful wars against the Bavarians and Saxons: the latter were compelled to pay him a tribute of three hundred horses; and one of the conditions of a treaty between them and the Franks was, that the monks of Fulda should be allowed to instruct them in the Christian religion.

Pepin died in 768, and was succeeded by his two sons, Charlemagne and Carloman. On the decease of the latter in 771, the former became sole ruler of all the empire of the Franks. In 772, a great war was undertaken against the Saxons, principally at the instigation of the bishop of Fulda, whose Christian missionaries they had massacred: this contest long continued, with various, and at first, with very undecided results; in 782,

Wittekind defeated at Sintal the army of Charlemagne, who revenged himself by the massacre of Verden, where he decapitated four thousand five hundred of the partisans of his adversary; at last, vanquished in two sanguinary battles, Wittekind and his brother Albion submitted to the Franks, and were baptized at Altigny. In 781, Pepin, son of Charlemagne, was crowned king of Italy, and Louis, his brother, king of Aquitaine.

Conquest invariably attended the arms of Charlemagne; he defeated the duke of Bavaria, and parcelled out his duchy into counties; subjugated the Sclavonians in Pomerania; and routed the Huns, who had ravaged Bavaria: in Italy, his arms were equally successful against the empress Irene. In 800, he was crowned emperor of the West at Rome, by Pope Leo II. Three years afterwards is the date of the last revolt of the Saxons; they were again defeated, and Charlemagne now transported ten thousand Saxon families into the interior of his dominions, and gave their possessions to the Obotrites; finally, the nation was incorporated with the empire of the Franks. The last wars of Charlemagne were successful expeditions against the Bohemians and the Danes. He died in 814, and was buried at Aix-la-Chapelle, where the emperor Otho III. afterwards opened his tomb, and found him sitting on a throne clothed in his imperial robes.

In 1163, this emperor was placed amongst the saints of the Romish church by the anti-pope, Pascal III.; and fourteen years afterwards by the pope, Alexander III. Though he did not know how to write, he was very learned for the age in which he lived, and was a great patron of the sciences. He married successively four wives, and had five concubines. The territories which he governed were immense: he possessed all France, the county of Barcelona in Spain, Italy as far as Benevento, all Germany, the Low Countries, and a part of Hungary.

Louis the Debonnaire, son of Charlemagne, and of Hildegarde, a Suabian princess, was proclaimed emperor a year before the death of his father. He signalised the commencement of his reign by allowing the banished Saxons to return to their homes. The government of this prince was perpetually disturbed by his

sons, who rebelled against him and quarrelled with one another. In 832, the pope, Gregory IV., entered France for the purpose of pacifying these troubles, but he finally took part with the sons against the father, who was deposed, and confined in the monastery of Prum. He was accused of viewing with indifference the debaucheries of his wife, Judith, daughter of the count of Weingarten, in Suabia,—of having murdered Bernard, king of Italy,—and of having neglected to hold the customary assemblies in the month of March; for these offences he was constrained to do penance in public. He was afterwards absolved by his bishops at St. Denis; but his rebellious sons continued to harass him as before. He died near Mainz in 840, whilst marching against his third son, Lewis, whom he had made king of Germany in 817.

This prince caused the Bible to be translated into the German language, in which several of his laws were published. To ensure the fidelity of his subjects he alienated a great part of his domains; and in this way may be explained how the fiefs came to be hereditary. In the last division which Lewis the Debonnaire made of his possessions, the imperial dignity, Italy, and the kingdoms of Lorraine and Burgundy, were allotted to Lothaire, Germany to Lewis, and France to Charles the Bald. The ambition of the eldest brother compelled the two latter to unite their forces against him in order to repel his encroachments; and a battle was fought at Fontenai, near Auxerre in Burgundy, where Lothaire was completely defeated. A treaty of peace was shortly afterwards concluded at Verdun, by which Lewis was confirmed in the possession of that part of the empire to the right of the Rhine; several towns, as Spire, Mainz, were also conceded to him—*propter vini copiam*,—according to the writers of the day.

Lewis the German subdued the Obotrites of Mecklenbourg, and made their leaders dukes. In 860, he established a law, by virtue of which the states were entitled to co-operate in whatever was undertaken within the boundaries of the kingdom. In 870, he gained possession of a part of the kingdom of Lorraine, viz., of the Low Countries, and of the towns of Mainz, Treves, and Cologne.

This prince died in 876, and his territories were divided between his three sons: Carloman, the eldest, obtained Bavaria and its dependencies; Lewis III. was made king of Saxony and of Franconia, and of that part of Lorraine mentioned above; and Charles the Fat received Suabia, Switzerland, and Alsatia. Carloman took possession of Italy, and was proclaimed king in 877; he died without legitimate issue in 880; and Bavaria now fell to his brother Lewis, Italy to Charles the Fat. Lewis had also no legitimate issue; he died, 882, of chagrin, after having been defeated by the Normans, who had invaded Saxony. Charles the Fat now reigned over the united territories of Lewis the German; and in 884, he was made regent of France, during the minority of Charles the Simple; he had already been crowned emperor by the pope, John VIII., in 883. Though this prince could command forces equal to those of Charlemagne, his personal weakness and incapacity were such that he was deposed in 887, by the common consent of all his subjects; the French choosing Eudes, count of Paris, to be their sovereign, the Italians, the Dukes Guy and Berenger, and the Germans, Arnvul, the illegitimate son of Carloman, the late king of Bavaria.

Arnvul was poisoned in Italy, in 899. An assembly of the states was now held at Forcheim, and Lewis, son of the late sovereign, a boy of seven years of age, was elected king, because, says Hatton, the archbishop of Mainz, in his letter to Pope John IX., the states thought it better to follow the ancient usage of the Franks, whose sovereigns were all of the same family, than to introduce a new custom.

In 906 and several succeeding years, Germany was ravaged by the Huns, who gained several victories, and were only averted by the payment of an annual tribute; they finally turned their arms against Italy. Lewis IV. died, without having been married, in 911; he was the last Carlovingian prince who reigned in Germany. As the German monarchy had been a conquest of Charlemagne, it might be expected that it would remain an hereditary possession of his family; and that now, on the death of the last descendant of Lewis the Debonnaire, it would pass to the line of Charles the Bald, which was now represented by

Charles the Simple; but that prince was too feeble to enforce his rights at home, much less to follow up his claims abroad, and hence the German states proceeded without hesitation to elect a sovereign from their own body. The nobles, who thus assumed the power of disposing of the crown, now began to stipulate for new rights and exclusive privileges.

The duchies and counties which had formerly been governed by lieutenants or commissaries of the sovereign, now began to be regarded as hereditary fiefs. By degrees, the nobilities and states of the different duchies which had previously only acknowledged the sovereignty of the king, came to be absolutely dependant on their dukes, and to hold as fiefs the estates which had formerly been in the grant of the crown. Finally, the dukes possessed themselves of the domains which had belonged to the sovereign in the respective districts. The clergy also, soon extended their dominions; for the sovereign, dreading the increasing power of the now almost independent nobility, was glad to exempt the ecclesiastical princes from their jurisdiction, and to oppose the latter to them.

At the period of which we are treating, the states of Germany were divided into two classes; the one composed of the Bavarians, Suabians, and Franconians; the other of the Saxons: these states being united, elected unanimously Otto the Great, duke of Saxony, to be king of Germany, in 912. The great age of this prince, however, prevented him from accepting the crown; and he recommended them to choose in his stead Conrad, count of Franconia, who was accordingly crowned king, October 19th, of the same year. During the reign of this prince, Germany was again desolated by the Huns, who advanced as far as Alsatia and Lorraine.

Conrad died in 919, and the states elected Henry the Fowler, duke of Saxony, to be his successor. The Huns had now adopted such a regular system of depredation in Germany, that Henry was compelled to make important changes in the general constitution of the country in order to repel them: he set on foot a large body of cavalry, which he disciplined with great assiduity; he built several towns, and compelled the ninth part

of the inhabitants of the country to take up their abode in them; the Saxon and other towns already existing, he surrounded with walls. He decreed that all public assemblies and feasts should be held in cities alone; and he gave to his new citizens several prerogatives and privileges, even obliging the country-people to furnish them with provisions, and to transport the third part of their harvests to the magazines of the cities. Such was, in a great measure, the origin of the cities, of their communities and guilds. The patrician families were the descendants of nobles who had changed their country for a town abode. Henry was a warlike prince: besides defeating the Huns, he conquered Brandenbourg, Misnia, and Lusatia, from the Sclavonians, and created margraves for the defence of those provinces. The Huns were finally defeated at the great battle of Merseburg, where their army was entirely cut to pieces. This sovereign died in 936, whilst meditating an expedition into Italy; and was buried in the abbey of Quedlinburg, which he had founded.

Otho, son of Henry the Fowler, succeeded his father; he was elected at Aix-la-Chapelle, where, after the dukes, princes, and other nobles had voted for him, Hildebert, the archbishop of Mainz, presented him to the people, who approved the election by holding up their hands. After the ceremony of the coronation, which was performed by the archbishop of Mainz, Otho dined in public, and was waited on at table by the dukes of his empire: Arnoul, duke of Bavaria, acted as marshal, Eberhard, duke of Franconia, as grand seneschal, and Herman, duke of Suabia, as grand cup-bearer. The early part of the reign of Otho, who was surnamed the Great, was distracted by the revolts of his nobles: his latter years were occupied by Italian expeditions. It was to him that the German clergy was principally indebted for its power and prosperity; he conferred entire duchies and counties upon its dignitaries, and allowed them to exercise the same rights as the secular princes.

At the diet held at Stella in 942, there was a great dispute amongst the German jurisconsults, as to whether a child born after the death of its father, ought to share the heritage of the latter conjointly with its uncles; Otho decreed that the question

should be decided by a duel, which it accordingly was; two champions were appointed, and the one who represented the cause of the nephew gained the victory. It would seem that Otho was in the habit of allowing a right to be proved either by oath or by a duel, at the option of the petitioner.

Otho married Edith, daughter of Edward, king of England, and sister of King Athelstan. In 962, he was crowned emperor by Pope John XII., whom he shortly afterwards cited to appear before the council of Rome, to answer charges of sacrilege and other enormous crimes: the pope refusing to obey the summons, was deposed to the council, which, in concert with the emperor, elected in his place Leo VIII. In 964, a famous decree of the council of Rome gave to Otho, and to all his successors, the right of electing the pope, as also of appointing all bishops and archbishops in his kingdoms: it was also declared that the emperor was entitled to name his successor. After the death of Edith, Otho married Adelaide, daughter of Ralph, king of the two Burgundies, who was the first Roman empress and queen of Germany who was crowned, and by whom he had a son, Otho, who succeeded him on his death in 973.

Otho II. had already been elected king of Germany in 961, and crowned emperor in 967: he married in 972, Theophania, niece of John Zimisces, emperor of the East. He died at the early age of twenty-eight, at Rome, and was buried in the church of St. Peter.

Otho III., the son and successor of the late emperor, was only three years of age on the death of his father, when he was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle. At the death of Pope John XV. he made Bruno, son of Otho, duke of Franconia, his successor, and was crowned by him in 995, after having been elected emperor, in 982, by the diet of Verona. Otho III. was poisoned in 1002. The reign of his successor, Henry II., or the Lame, the last of the Saxon emperors, presents nothing worthy of notice in a sketch like the present.

Under the Saxon emperors, the counts palatine had their origin; there were two principal officers so called, the one for the Saxons, the other for the Franks; and subordinate ones in several of the

large duchies. The two palatins in chief were independent one of the other, and decided, under the authority of the emperor, not only causes of appeal, but also the disputes between the princes of Germany and the vassals of the crown residing in their territories. The count palatine was not merely a judge; he was also the hereditary governor of the lands and domains of the emperor in his district, and receiver-general of finance. As the emperors and kings of Germany had no fixed residence, and held their courts sometimes in one province and sometimes in another, they had palaces in all the principal cities, and domains in each province for their support during their stay; and during their absence, the conservation of their rights was entrusted to the counts palatine.

Under the Saxon emperors, the power and possessions of the clergy increased to such an extent, that the body became at last more formidable to the sovereign than the secular princes.

We shall here enumerate the rights which were enjoyed at this period by the emperor and by the states, in their individual capacities, or collectively as the diet. The emperor had the right of conferring all the great benefices, of confirming or annulling the election of the popes, of convoking councils and causing them to decide on ecclesiastical affairs, of conferring the title of king on his vassals, of granting vacant fiefs, of receiving the revenues of the empire accruing from the domains, tolls, gold and silver mines, tributes of the Jews, and fines, of disposing of Italy as its sovereign, of establishing fairs and cities, and conferring civic rights, of convoking diets and fixing their duration, of coining and of granting that privilege to the states, and of causing justice to be administered in the territories of the states.

The states, in their collective capacity as the diet, elected the kings of Germany, appointed their guardians, passed laws, declared war and concluded peace, decided the disputes of other states, and judged and condemned other states accused of crime and rebellion. In their own territories, the states could form alliances amongst themselves, declare war and build fortresses, send ambassadors to foreign princes, transmit their fiefs to their sons, assemble their provincial states and cause their vassals to be

tried by them. The states were also privileged by the emperor, to coin money, to establish fairs, to exact tolls, to receive Jews, administer justice, and possess gold mines.

We now come to the period when the dukes of the house of Franconia ascended the throne of Germany. The first sovereign of this line was Conrad II., who was chosen by a majority of votes in 1024; he was crowned at Mainz by the archbishop. His nobles took the oath of fidelity in the following order: first the bishops, then the dukes, then the other princes and high officers; afterwards the barons or free lords, then the ordinary nobles; and finally, the freemen attached to the high nobility by fiefs or certain duties. Conrad was crowned king of Italy at Milan, and afterwards at Monza. He passed a law which decreed that no vassal should be deprived of his fief, except for felony, and by the judgment of his peers. He died at Utrecht in 1039.

It was under the sovereigns of this line that the regulations respecting the expedition to Italy were first enforced. We find that it was then the custom for the kings of Germany, before going to Italy to be crowned emperors, to announce their intention a year and six weeks before-hand; then all the vassals of the crown must assemble on the plain of Roncale, to be passed in review; the nobles must also bring with them their vassals; and all, of whatever rank, who did not appear, forfeited their fiefs. At this period, the princes had already their officers of court, namely, a marshal, a seneschal, a cupbearer, and a chamberlain.

To show the relation which existed at this time between many inferior nobles and the dukes, we may quote here the answer which, according to Wippon, the counts and lords of the duchy of Suabia made to Duke Ernest when he summoned them to rebel against the emperor:—"If we were the slaves of the king, and he had subjected us to your laws, we would follow you in all your enterprises; but we are free, and the emperor is nothing more than the common defender of our liberties, which we shall lose if we separate ourselves from him; therefore, as soon as you require of us that which is unjust, we shall make use of our

liberty to return to the emperor, who has only submitted us to you under certain conditions."

Conrad died in 1039, and was succeeded by his son, Henry III. The times of Conrad and Henry were the most flourishing period of the German monarchy; but the early death of the latter, in 1056, the minority of his son, Henry IV., and the feminine government of the mother of the latter, Agnes of Guienne, were but too favourable to the designs of the great nobles. A contingent misfortune might have brought the imperial throne into a dependant state; and such a misfortune at length befell it in the increase of the papal power. Henry IV. was engaged, at an early period of his reign, in a war against the Saxons; and, at the same time, Rudolf of Rheinfeld, duke of Suabia, and Bertold of Zæringhen, duke of Carinthia, united their arms against him. In 1076, the king, after having had numerous disputes with the pope, ventured on his deposition at a diet held at Worms. When the bishops made this known in Rome, the knights and the people of that city, always ready to embrace the side of those who exalted the cause of Rome, took up arms under the prefect of the town, but the pope represented to them that spiritual arms alone must gain the victory in this contest. He assembled a hundred and ten bishops, and put under the bann, Siegfried, archbishop of Mainz, the disturber of the German empire, together with all the bishops and abbots who had been present at the diet of Worms; lastly, he extended the same penalty to the king, declaring that he who had violated the honours of the church, had more than deserved to lose his own. "I will give him peace," said Gregory, "when he shall seek peace with God," (meaning with himself). "I cannot find that when the Lord confided to the apostle the keys of heaven and hell, he made any exception in favour of kings."

At this crisis, Guelph, duke of Bavaria, Bertold, and Rudolf, consulted together, and gave occasion to the summoning of a diet, in which they urged the king, since those who for a year and a day remained under the bann forfeited their estates, to oblige the pope to come to Germany. The people at this period, influenced

by the monks, who, by castration, fasting, silence, and strict obedience to their orders, had attained a high degree of popular veneration, were for the most part determined in favour of the cause of Rome. The emperor, apprehensive of the consequences that might ensue if the pope should make his appearance on the German side of the Alps, preferred to go and seek absolution in Italy. He found Gregory at Canossa, a strong fortress belonging to Matilda, countess of Este, which had been formed by nature and art, as a secure asylum. After the king had for three days and nights entreated pardon, with lamentation, in penitential garments, and with naked feet, Gregory gave him absolution, under an engagement that he should, within a limited time, and according to the good pleasure of the pope, reconcile himself with the German princes and their party. Notwithstanding these attempts at reconciliation, his enemies in the empire declared shortly afterwards Duke Rudolf, king of the Germans; but the fortune of arms was on the side of Henry; Rudolf was slain in 1080, and Herman of Luxemburg, his successor, fell through his own pusillanimity. The pope was now expelled from Rome, yet the public sentiment destroyed the effect of the emperor's victories. The altar afforded an asylum against the exertion of the royal power, and the privileges of particular ranks began to display an influence, which in the sequel became, in an unforeseen manner, beneficial to the interests of humanity. The king's enemies were in his own house; his eldest born, who had revolted, was scarcely dead, when his second son, Henry, imitating the former, raised a rebellious hand against the declining strength of his father, who had already fought sixty-five battles: the sons of the monarch were ever ready to enter into litigation against the privileges of the crown, so long as they had it not in their possession. In 1106, the fiftieth year of his reign, Henry IV. was reduced to the necessity of yielding the insignia of monarchy into the hands of his son. Grief and vexation shortened his days; and after his death his body remained five years above ground, in a little chapel, in the cathedral at Spires, until, released from the bann, it at length obtained rest in a consecrated grave. He was succeeded by his son, Henry V., who married Matilda, daughter of Henry I.

of England; after his decease, this princess was united to Geoffrey of Anjou; by whom she had a son, afterwards Henry II., king of England. Henry V. renewed the war against the papal chair, in which his father had fallen a sacrifice to the ambition of the pope. In 1111, Paschalis II. in the midst of a solemn assembly in the metropolitan church of the Christian world, was seized and made captive by this emperor. But so powerful was the voice of public opinion, that no victory, no rival pope, no calumnious, or even just reproaches, were sufficiently powerful to secure to the emperor a decisive advantage. At length, in 1122, Pope Callixtus II. compromised the dispute concerning investitures with Henry V.; it was agreed, "that the election should be left to the capitularies: the spiritual investiture should be performed by the pope with a ring and staff, and that of the temporalities by the emperor, with the sceptre; that a privilege should also be reserved to the emperor to be present, either in person or by his commissaries, at the election and consecration; and in the case of any difference of opinion, to support the pretensions of the better party."

About this time the progressive culture of estates, and the growth of arts, enriched the husbandmen and artificers, and a new interest was thus formed in opposition to the powerful nobility. The third state adhered to the monarch and the great lords, from whom it obtained liberties which gave it security. The people of this class gradually flocked to cities, which afforded them the safety founded upon union; and several cities often formed alliances with each other. Already, under the house of Henry I. and Conrad II., the rights of the cities of Soest, Cologne, Magdeburg, and Lubeck, became examples to other places; and the towns founded by the dukes of Zæhringen soon showed that free men can do nothing better to secure their independence than to assemble themselves in numerous communities.

Henry V. died 1125, and the states assembled at Mainz, elected Lothaire, count of Supplinburg, to succeed him. At this period the power of the emperor had dwindled to a shadow; formerly he had balanced the clergy against the temporal states, and had hoped by patronising the former, to strengthen his position;

but these expectations were futile, for the clergy used its increase of power to embarrass, instead of to assist him, and went over to the party of the nobles instead of joining him against them.

About this time, the office of count became hereditary, and those who held it, instead of signing themselves as heretofore, simply Henry Count, or Ulrich Count, as the case might be, now assumed the names of the districts over which they had been appointed. Under the Franconian emperors, the law of primogeniture was observed in the heritage of duchies and counties; but under the Suabian line which succeeded them, it fell into disuse.

Lothaire II., the last of the Franconian emperors, died in 1137, and Conrad, duke of Franconia, son of Frederic of Hohenstauffen, and of Agnes, daughter of Henry IV., was elected at Coblenz to succeed him. At the death of this prince in 1152, his nephew, Frederic I., surnamed Barbarossa, then in the flower of his age, and already celebrated for military exploits, ascended the throne.

Rome soon experienced how much Frederic was capable of effecting against or in favour of papacy; for when, in 1159, the cardinals could not agree in the choice of a successor to Hadrian IV., he wrote to them, declaring that he would summon a general assembly of all Christendom. They then united their endeavours in favour of Alexander III., a prelate of distinguished courage and experience; but a synod, held by the emperor at Pavia, declared for Octavius, who assumed the name of Victor IV. Alexander pronounced the bann of the church against his opponent, declared the emperor to have forfeited the crown, and endeavoured to rouse in his own cause all the Christian courts. But the army of the emperor, at the head of which fought the two archbishops of Mainz and of Cologne, marched towards Rome, and Alexander fled to Montpellier. In the mean time, the greatest and strongest towns of Lombardy had formed a combination for establishing a free republic, and a similar spirit began anew to display itself in Rome. The cities embraced the cause of Alexander, from apprehension of the imperial power; and the two great factions of the Guelphs who favoured the papacy, and the Ghibellines in opposition to it, were now formed.

The emperor entered Italy, burnt Crema, Tortona, and Milan; ordered salt to be strewed where the latter had stood, and commanded that fields and meadows should be formed on the site of its ancient palaces; the fortresses he gave into the hands of Ghibelline lords. Long and severe was the struggle of Frederic against Alexander and the Lombard towns: at last, after a victorious campaign, he offered peace on condition that both the popes should resign their pretensions, and that a free election should unite the Christian world; however, the proposal was not listened to, and the emperor marched as a conqueror into Rome. But the intemperance of his soldiers thinned his ranks, and carried off almost all the princes of the army; so that the victory most desired was to escape the pestilence, and to obtain refuge in the Apennines from the troops of the Lombard towns.

In 1168 we find Milan rebuilt, and in the space of a year the abode of 15,000 warriors. In 1174, Frederic had again recourse to arms; but two years afterwards was completely defeated by the Milanese at Legnano. The emperor, on this occasion, was not so much humiliated by the success of his adversaries, as by the defection of his friend, Henry the Lion, at a time when he was suffering the pressure of calamity, and in spite of his personal remonstrances. In the eighteenth year of the schism, Frederic was reconciled with Pope Alexander: he kissed the feet of the pontiff, who hastened to embrace him and conduct him to the altar. The cities were confirmed, for a certain period, in the rights of which they had possessed themselves; and Alexander, the father of the Italian republics, made a triumphal entry into Rome, which the old consuls might have envied him.

On the return of Frederic to Germany, he proceeded to punish the treason of Henry the Lion, who refusing to appear before the diet to answer the charges against him, was deprived of his honours, fiefs, and other dignities, and, indeed, of all except his allodial possessions of Brunswick and Luneburg. His extensive territories were divided as follows:—The duchy of Saxony and the circle of Wittenberg, were given to Bernard of Anhalt; the duchy of Westphalia fell to the archbishop of Cologne, who had been his principal enemy; the county of Holstein was made a

fief of the empire; the archbishop of Mainz obtained Eichsfeld; and, indeed, most of the neighbouring ecclesiastical princes had their territories enlarged at the expense of the duke. The landgraves of Thuringia possessed themselves of the county palatine of Saxony. The duchy of Bavaria was given to Otto von Wittelsbach, the ancestor of the present royal family of Bavaria. The counties of Carinthia, Styria, and Tyrol, which had formerly been subordinate to this duchy, now became imperial fiefs. Lubeck and Ratisbon were declared imperial cities; and the Sclavonian princes, who had been vassals of Henry, were made princes of the empire under the name of dukes of Pomerania. Thus the treason of the duke of Brunswick entailed consequences which completely altered the face of the German empire.

In 1188 a diet was held at Mainz, where Barbarossa and a great part of the German nobility took the cross. The crusading army assembled at Presburg, marched through Hungary, spread terror among the Greeks, defeated the army of the Seljukes, and arrived at the frontier of Syria. Not far from the place where Alexander the Great incurred the risk of death from a similar accident, the emperor perished by bathing in the cold stream of Saleph; he was buried at Antioch in 1190. During this crusade, Frederic, duke of Suabia, son of the emperor, founded the Teutonic order, of which the first grand-master was Henry Wallpot of Bassenheim; it was afterwards confirmed, in 1191, by Pope Celestinus.

Barbarossa was succeeded by his son, Henry VI., who became more powerful in Italy than any of his predecessors. This prince obliged the duke of Austria to deliver Richard Cœur de Lion into his hands, and would not release him until after he had purchased his ransom with seventy thousand marks of silver. He laid claim to the mines of Saxony, which were now becoming celebrated, as belonging to the crown, and forced the possessors to give up at least one-third of the revenue. The Cyprian king, of the house of Lusignan, and Leo, king of the neighbouring Armenia, or properly Cilicia, acknowledged his power, which was greater than any other prince in Christendom possessed. He had persuaded a great proportion of the princes of the empire to

assent that the throne of Germany should be declared hereditary; but was prevented from carrying this important plan into execution by death, when he had only attained his thirty-second year. According to some, he was poisoned by his empress, Constance, daughter of Roger, king of Sicily, to avenge the cruelty with which he had treated her rebellious countrymen.

The states now made choice, not of his son Frederic, who was but three years old, but of his brother Philip, to whom some princes, however, from disaffection or apprehensions for their liberties, opposed Otho IV., the son of Henry the Lion. While these rivals threw the empire into disorder, Naples and Sicily, and the celebrated pope, Innocent III., acknowledged the pretensions of Frederic. The war between Philip and Otho terminated in favour of the former, who, in 1207, was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, by the archbishop of Cologne; but the succeeding year terminated both his reign and his life: he was murdered, June 22, 1208, at Bamberg, by Otto von Wittelsbach.

The states now assembled at Frankfort, and agreed on the election of Otho, who also received the imperial crown from Innocent III., after having sworn to maintain and defend the rights of the empire, to protect the church, and especially the holy see, and not to attack the youthful Frederic, king of Naples and Sicily. Notwithstanding these pledges, Otho soon rushed precipitately into the same measures which had involved his predecessors in so many conflicts with the Roman see. Accordingly, Innocent excommunicated him, and the princes of the empire abandoned him for Frederic, son of Henry VI., who, accompanied by the bishops, entered Germany in 1212, and was crowned at Mainz. Otho, too feeble to resist his successful rival, retired to his duchy of Brunswick. Shortly afterwards, in conjunction with his ally, the count of Flanders, he was completely defeated at Bouvines by the French: he died at Harzburg in 1218.

Frederic II. was animated by an heroic spirit; he was equal to the bravest of the ancient Cæsars, and in intelligence superior to most of them. He conceived the same partiality for the poetry of the Provençals, which his father, and his son Conrad, with many other princes and lords of those times, had entertained for that

of the Germans: tenderness, animation, and elegance pervade the works of this prince and of his noble relatives. Love and virtue were not their only themes; the corruptions of the age were reprehended in their verses, and the exploits of Richard and Saladin celebrated; the lyre resounded with the praises of God, the beauties of the firmament and of all nature, and with the imaginary scenes of romance. Frederic was gifted with a penetrating genius; but amidst his sublimity he was endowed with grace and gentleness; and his affability and true humanity endeared him to all. He possessed immovable firmness, and a greatness of individual character, the impression of which long survived his death*.

In 1215, this sovereign exacted an oath from his nobles not to coin bad money, not to levy extraordinary tolls, and not to steal on the highway. The Teutonic knights, being obliged to quit Acre, returned to Germany, where their grand-master was received into the number of the imperial princes. The popes, in order to keep Frederic employed in distant countries, compelled him to enter into an engagement to deliver the holy sepulchre; which, after having been excommunicated for his delay by Gregory IX., he was obliged to fulfil in 1229. He concluded his eastern expedition without bloodshed, for Meledin, the sultan of Egypt, gave up to him the sovereignty of Jerusalem, Bethlehem, Nazareth, and other holy places, without resorting to arms.

Gregory IX. had ascended the papal chair in the eighty-fifth year of his age, and held it fourteen years in perpetual contention with the emperor: he was succeeded by Innocent IV. In the employment of spiritual arms, the use of other weapons was not lost sight of; but the former were now wielded with more than usual energy by both parties. The emperor also ridiculed the affected solemnity of his adversaries, and endeavoured by every means in his power to lower their influence. So little, indeed, did he respect either clerical immunities or popular prejudices, that he suffered priests convicted of crimes, to be hanged or burned;

* Such is the eulogy pronounced on this remarkable man by the historian Müller; but some other writers entertain an opinion far less favourable.

and he built a city in the south of Italy for the Saracens whom he had subdued; but the time for effecting the revolution which he meditated had not yet arrived.

In 1240 he was excommunicated by the pope, who accused him of having blasphemed Jesus Christ at the diet of Frankfort, and of having formed a design to extirpate the Christian religion: this accusation, however, the emperor successfully repelled. Germany remained faithful to Frederic, until Henry, his eldest son, deserted him; after whose death the landgrave of Thuringia, and then William, count of Holland, were opposed to the condemned Frederic with the imperial title. The latter resisted with unshaken fortitude, until fortune was unfaithful to him in every region of his empire. Public opinion, under the guidance of his bitterest enemies, was the occasion of his ruin, and he died in 1252, a prey to woe and disappointment.

During the troubles of this period, the imperial power diminished, whilst that of the states increased: the latter now arrogated to themselves the right of deposing as well as of electing the emperor, and claimed a voice in the creation of princes, and in the distribution of fiefs: in their own territories, now hereditary, the chiefs ruled with unbounded sway, and though much harassed by their own nobles, would admit of no interference from the emperor.

Neither Conrad, the son of Frederic, who fell in the defence of his hereditary possessions; nor William, who perished prematurely by a different fate; nor the duke of Cornwall, brother of the English king, who was elected by some of the princes, and only knew how to sell privileges in order to reimburse himself for the sums they had cost him; nor Alphonso of Castile, to whom others confided the crown; nor any other prince in Christendom, found himself possessed of the power requisite for restoring the royal authority in Germany, and the imperial dignity in Europe, to that degree of eminence which had been maintained during the three preceding centuries. The supreme magistracy of the European commonwealth fell into such a state of weakness, that the three-and-twenty years which followed the death of Frederic, are termed by many an interregnum, or a period of

vacation of the throne; and we may so consider them without doing injustice to the character of the age.

This interregnum facilitated the consolidation of the power of the states; they now seized upon the domains of the crown which were situated in their respective territories. No diets were held for the administration of justice; disputes were decided by duels; and the roads, the navigable waters, and, indeed, the whole face of the country, was exposed to the predatory excursions of lawless knights and nobles, who inhabited innumerable fortresses.

In 1255, the states, interested in the maintenance of peace and order, united in common defence: thus was formed the Rhenish confederacy; and minor associations of the same nature were established throughout the country. The Hanseatic league was now called into existence, and was shortly composed of eighty of the finest cities of Germany: these were divided into four classes, —Lubeck was at the head of the first, and of the league in general; Cologne of the second, Brunswick of the third, and Dantzic of the fourth. Abroad, this celebrated commercial union had its principal establishments at London, Bruges, Bergen, and Novogorod.

We have already seen the people excluded from the election of the emperor: but an electoral college was next founded, which excluded from the exercise of that function the great mass of the nobility, and conferred it exclusively on the chief temporal and spiritual princes. This limitation of their powers was regarded, however, by many of the nobles as a benefit: they were glad to be relieved from the danger and expense of journeying to attend the diets, to which they had formerly been peremptorily summoned.

Conrad IV. died in 1254, at the age of twenty-eight. His son Conradin, the last of the Hohenstauffen, was taken prisoner in Italy, at the battle of Aquila, in 1268, and beheaded at Naples by the brutal Charles of Anjou.

In 1273, the prince electors of Germany, wearied of the anarchy which had now prevailed for several years, determined at length to give a new chief to the empire: they were partly, also, incited to this by the pope, Gregory X., who threatened to

elect one himself. Their choice fell upon Rudolf, count of Hapsburg, whose hereditary power was inconsiderable; but as he had been richly endowed by nature, he found resources which ensured him success, in his great capacity and military talents. He conducted the affairs of his government with benevolence and paternal dignity. He laid the foundation of the power of his family, by investing his sons with the duchies of Austria, Styria, Wendismark, and Carniola, as fiefs of the empire, and by marrying three of his daughters to the electors of Bavaria, Saxony, and Brandenburg.

The death of Rudolf took place in 1291; it was followed by an interregnum of nine months, which was terminated by the election of Adolf, count of Nassau, notwithstanding the efforts of Albert, son of the late emperor, who was too powerful and ambitious to suit the designs of the electors, accustomed to measure their own strength by the weakness of their sovereign. The new emperor was not rich enough to repay the citizens of Frankfort the expenses of his election; nor could he raise twelve thousand marks of silver, to pay for the province of Thuringia, which he had bought of Albert the Unnatural, its landgrave. Partly in order to obtain the money necessary for this purpose, he entered into a subsidiary treaty against France, with Edward, king of England.

Whilst the emperor was encountering an unexpected opposition in taking possession of Thuringia, Albert of Austria, son of Rudolf, encouraged by his various embarrassments, formed a strong party against him, and procured himself to be elected in his stead. Adolf, who was a valiant commander, contended unsuccessfully for his dignity: after having been formally deposed by a diet held at Mainz, he was killed by the hand of his rival, at the battle of Gelheim, in 1298. The privileges of the nobles, and the rights of the people were detested by Albert, because they continually opposed obstacles to his will. He endeavoured to carry his arbitrary designs into execution, in every possible mode; to strengthen his position and increase his pecuniary resources, he attempted to aggrandize himself at the expense of the margraves of Misnia, to form a Swiss principality

for one of his sons, and to rule absolutely in Styria; and such was his courage and ability, that he succeeded in almost all his enterprises. He humbled the states, but drew upon himself so much hatred on that account, that his neighbours entered into a confederacy against him; at length, in 1308, he was murdered in Switzerland, by his nephew John, son of Rudolf, prince of Suabia, not without the concurrence, as is supposed, of several of the other princes.

Henry, count of Luxemburg, who was recommended only by his personal merit, succeeded to the throne of Germany, under the title of Henry VII. John, the son of this prince, was chosen king of Bohemia, and in 1311, was left regent of Germany, whilst the emperor undertook an expedition to Italy, partly for the purpose of pacifying the Guelphs and Ghibellines, whose quarrels still agitated the peninsula, notwithstanding that the disputes between the popes and emperors had long been settled. In 1313, whilst preparing to attack the king of Naples, the emperor died suddenly, it is supposed of poison administered by a Dominican monk. The electors, unable to agree on the choice of a successor to the throne, were now divided into two parties; one of which favoured the pretensions of Lewis of Bavaria, and the other, those of Frederic, duke of Austria. A war ensued, which lasted four years, and was at last decided on the field of Muhldorf, in favour of Lewis: his rival was afterwards imprisoned in the castle of Trausnitz. Lewis, following the example of his four predecessors, endeavoured to consolidate the power of his family, and obtained the sovereignty of Brandenburg for his eldest son, Lewis. The policy of the house of Luxemburg, and the influence of the pope, effectually destroyed the peace of this emperor and his family: and before the period of his death, which took place in 1347, some of the electors were already occupied in choosing a successor. Lewis V. was the first German emperor who constantly resided in his hereditary states; the imperial domains no longer sufficing for the maintenance of a court. The crown was now offered to Edward III., of England, who, after some deliberation, refused it; finally, after various intrigues, and considerable delay, it was conferred on Charles of Luxemburg,

son and successor of John of Bohemia, who purchased the concurrence of his rivals, the margrave of Misnia and the count of Schwarzburg, with thirty-two thousand marks. It appeared to be the chief object of Charles, during an administration of thirty years, to increase the power and splendour of his house, by obtaining from the alienable domains and privileges, the greatest possible amount of money, and other advantages. On his journey to Italy, he sold freedom to some of the towns, and independent power to the tyrants who oppressed other parts of that country; but, on the other hand, he promised not to visit it again, without the consent of the pope; and not to pass a night in Rome. He promulgated that fundamental law of the empire, the Golden Bull, which regulates the election of the German monarchs; its style partakes strongly of the spirit of the times. It begins with an apostrophe to Satan, anger, pride, and luxury, and fixes the number of electors at seven, who are to oppose the seven mortal sins. It speaks of the fall of the angels, of a heavenly paradise, of Pompey, and of Cæsar; and asserts that the government of Germany is modelled after the Trinity. Charles IV. so increased his hereditary dominions, that in 1373, they extended from the boundaries of Austria to those of Pomerania. In order to secure the election of his son Wenceslaf, as his successor, he bribed the electors with one hundred thousand gold florins, and abandoned to them several imperial cities, and the tolls levied on the Rhine: thus were perverted the last sources of the imperial revenue. It was now discovered that the imperial dignity might be enabled by good management to repay to its possessor the expenses its acquisition had occasioned.

Charles IV. died in 1378. Wenceslaf, his son and successor, evinced principles which were disagreeable both to the clergy and nobility. The nobles of Bohemia, who thought him too partial to the people, made him a prisoner under pretence of violent and immoral conduct, and put him into the safe custody of the dukes of Austria. He made his escape; but six years afterwards, on the most shallow pretences, was deposed by the spiritual electors, and by the count palatine, who shortly afterwards became his successor. Wenceslaf was so little like other men, that he acquiesced

very willingly in his own deposition. He is accused by the monkish annalists of his time of all kinds of debauchery and cruelty; but it is not improbable that some of the accusations against him may have had their origin in the favour which he showed to the reformers, Huss and Ziska. One of the reasons alleged by the electors for deposing him was, that his manners were unworthy of an emperor, and that he allowed dogs to sleep in his chamber.

Frederic, duke of Brunswick, was elected in the place of Wenceslaf, but on his return from Frankfort was murdered by the count of Waldeck. Rupert, count palatine of the Rhine, a prince of prudent and upright intentions, next obtained the crown. After his death, in 1410, it was bestowed on Jodochus of Luxemburg, margrave of Moravia, a nephew of Charles IV. On the decease of this monarch, which soon followed his election, Sigismund, king of Hungary, brother of Wenceslaf, was unanimously chosen. In 1414, this prince summoned the council of Constance, which was attended, it is said, by eighteen thousand prelates and priests, and sixteen thousand princes and nobles; amongst other persons assembled on this occasion, were seven hundred and eighteen courtesans, protected by the magistracy. It was here decreed that a council was superior to the pope. Huss was summoned to Constance, where he appeared, provided with a safe-conduct from the emperor; this, however, was violated, and the honest and zealous reformer was burnt alive. From this time, Sigismund became so much the object of popular hatred, that he was obliged to maintain a war of eighteen years' duration against Ziska, Procopius, and other leaders of the Hussites; and only a few months before his death, attained to the quiet possession of the Bohemian crown, which had been bequeathed to him by his brother, Wenceslaf. He narrowly escaped captivity or death by the arms of the Turks at Nicopolis; and was afterwards imprisoned by his Hungarian nobles. Sigismund was so destitute of money, that he was obliged to sell the electorate of Brandenburg for four hundred thousand marks, to Frederic, of Hohenzollern. He received also, the sum of one hundred thousand marks from Frederic, margrave of Misnia, as the price

of the electoral hat of Saxony. Barbara, daughter of the count of Hilley, the second wife of Sigismund, rendered herself notorious for her debauchery, and was called the Messalina of Germany.

Sigismund died in 1437, and was succeeded by Albert II., duke of Austria. The only enterprise of moment in which this prince was engaged, during his short reign, was an expedition against the Turks, but he died in 1439, before any action took place. The electors who, though they desired an emperor, did not mean him to be their master, now conferred the crown on Frederic, duke of Austria, a feeble prince, who was obliged to give up a considerable portion of that half of the hereditary German dominions which belonged to his house. This prince died in 1493, after the states had several times menaced to depose him, on account of that very incapacity to which he owed his election; they accused him of neglecting public affairs, of allowing the peace of the empire to be disturbed with impunity, and of a lax administration of justice. The greatest confusion prevailed during his reign, and the empire was agitated by perpetual civil wars.

The patriotic emperor, Maximilian I., son of the preceding, endeavoured to remedy the defects in the political constitution of Germany, the danger of which became apparent, in proportion to the advancement of the neighbouring power of France. He divided the country into circles, and it was designed that the constitution of each circle should be a representation in miniature of the whole empire; and that each should possess its separate president, assemblies, and regulations. This was an excellent plan, but its execution was impeded by the religious dissensions which arose soon after this period.

To put an end to the incessant feuds which were carried on under the savage maxim that "might gives right," a supreme court of justice was established; a perpetual internal peace was proclaimed, all feuds were prohibited, and an imperial regency was appointed, to act in the absence of the emperor. The supreme court was composed of a judge, four presidents, and fifty assessors: the latter were chosen by the different states. It had been the custom of the emperor, Frederic III., to commute

the military assistance which the states were bound to afford him for a certain sum of money: Maximilian followed this example, but instead of appropriating all which he thus obtained, he devoted a part of it to the maintenance of a body of regular troops (*Lanzknechte*). At this period, the power of the states was such, that the emperor can only be regarded as the president of an assembly of sovereigns. The pretensions of the church were at this time exorbitant; the registers of the diet from 1450 to 1512, are filled with complaints against the popes, whom the ecclesiastical princes did not hesitate to accuse of having rendered tributary the free empire of Germany. The territories of the secular nobles were drained of money for the purchase of indulgences, of which the commissaries of Alexander VI. and Leo X. made an infamous traffic, for the defraying the expenses of the Jubilæum in 1500, and for the construction of the church of St. Peter, at Rome. At the same time, the corrupt morals of the priesthood, and the scandalous abuses of the ecclesiastical government, rendered reform inevitably necessary. At length Luther, of whom we first hear in 1517, executed a work which had been for ages in a course of preparation.

Maximilian I. died in 1519, and was succeeded by his grandson, Charles V., son of Philip, archduke of Austria, and king of Castile, who died before his father, in 1506. The house of Hapsburg had united under its sway, Spain, Naples, Sicily, Austria, Burgundy, the imperial crown of Germany, Mexico and Peru, and had nearly added Bohemia and Hungary to its possessions, when two individuals rescued from its yoke the freedom of Europe: one of these was Francis I., the most accomplished knight of his era; and the other, Martin Luther. Nothing was wanting to render Charles V. the greatest prince in Europe, except that quality which Luther opposed to him, the dauntless courage inspired by the consciousness of pure intentions. Charles had more ability to conceive than to execute; he was suspicious, crafty, and not capable of estimating the moral force of his adversaries. His power appeared immeasurable, while he was, in fact, under the necessity of concealing the mediocrity of his resources: though king of the opulent territories of the South,

heir of Burgundy, and lord of the new world, he was often destitute of money, from want of which proceeded weakness in a military discipline, which was also in itself defective in system. Charles did not arrive in Germany till 1520, when he was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle by the ecclesiastical electors. In the same year, Luther called on the pope, Leo X., to appoint commissioners to examine the doctrines contained in his attacks on Tetzel, the vendor of the absolutions; but the pope refused to comply with his demand, ordered his theses to be burnt, and excommunicated him after allowing a certain period in which to retract. The Reformation now commenced, supported by the elector of Saxony and several other princes. Luther, as it easily happens in revolutions, was probably carried by contradiction and opposition much farther than he at first intended to go; and his cause, having once been adopted by the nation, became invincible. He destroyed a great portion of the strange garb in which truth had been in the dark ages enveloped, if not totally hidden. The Bible, of which he made an excellent translation, was the foundation and support of his whole system. It was in vain that the pope enjoined the German states to prosecute Luther: they replied by a long enumeration of complaints against the holy see, which was signed by the Catholic princes, as well as by the partisans of Luther. At this period, Charles V. was prevented from attempting summarily to repress the new doctrines by a war with Francis I., which broke out in 1522, and raged without intermission till the battle of Pavia, in 1525.

In 1530, a diet was held at Augsburg, at which the Protestants delivered to the emperor a confession of faith: and the union which the princes of their party formed shortly afterwards at Smalkalde gave them political importance. The war which was conducted by John Frederick, elector of Saxony, Philip, landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, and other Protestant princes, against Charles V., broke out on the death of Francis I. and of Luther, which happened nearly at the same time, and about fifteen years after the conclusion of the league of Smalkalde. It was carried on in a feeble and unconnected manner, and, in 1547, the Protestants were completely defeated at Muhlberg, and the elector

of Saxony made prisoner. Charles, free from his rival of France and from the opposition of the Germans, now forgot his characteristic moderation: he assumed at once a despotic bearing; threatened to execute the elector of Saxony without consulting the states; compelled the landgrave to demand pardon of him on his knees; annihilated the league of Smalkalde, and assembled a diet at Augsburg, after filling the town and neighbourhood with his troops. But this conduct was more calculated to irritate than to terrify, and its results were quite contrary to what the emperor expected: at length, in 1555, he was obliged to liberate the imprisoned princes, and conclude a formal peace in matters of religion.

In the same year Charles V. ceded to his son Philip, the Low Countries and the territories which he possessed in Italy, after having repeated in vain his efforts to procure for him the imperial crown. More enfeebled by diseases which had impaired his vital powers, and by various causes of dissatisfaction, than by age, he took the resolution, soon after the conclusion of the religious peace, wholly to withdraw himself from public affairs. In his youth he had given up his hereditary dominions in Germany, to his brother; and during one of those frequent intervals in which his confidence in his own fortune failed him, had caused Ferdinand instead of his own son to be declared king of the Romans, or presumptive successor to the imperial crown: in like manner, he now actually transferred the empire to the former, and all his other dominions to the latter. He himself withdrew to the monastery of St. Just, which is situated among well-watered gardens and meadows in the plains of Estremadura, where he lived with his sisters, the widowed queens of France and Hungary, like a man whose happiness is entirely independent of external greatness: he passed two years, and terminated his life in this retirement, at the age of fifty-eight.

Ferdinand I., brother of Charles, ascended the throne of Germany in 1558, after having been king of Hungary and Bohemia for twenty years, and king of the Romans since 1530. In this reign was held a general assembly of the Protestants at Naumburg, where all the changes which had been made in the

confession of Augsburg, in order to approximate it to the system of Calvin, were corrected. Ferdinand I. died in 1564, and was succeeded by his son, Maximilian II. Philip II., son of Charles V., received no assistance from the German branch of the house of Austria, between which and the court of Spain an unceasing coolness and distrust subsisted for sixty years. Maximilian, like his father, was a prudent and judicious ruler: he maintained toleration, and was principally anxious for the peace and prosperity of his people. In 1568, the Emperor Maximilian accorded to the Austrian Protestants the free exercise of their religion. On his death, in 1576, he was succeeded by his son, Rudolf II., who is described as having been a great distiller, a good astronomer, a very tolerable esquire, but a very bad emperor.

At this period, the electorate of Saxony was the most flourishing state of the empire, and its prosperity was only disturbed by the divisions of the kindred sects of Augsburg and Geneva, which were driven to the utmost pitch of exasperation by the mis-named form of concord. While individual states were advancing in the career of improvement, the common bond of union between them, instead of becoming firmer, was relaxed by controversies. When the visitation of the supreme court, before mentioned, came to the turn of the Protestant states, the necessary work was completely at a stand. Rudolf was compelled by his brother Matthias, who afterwards succeeded him on the imperial throne, to abdicate the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary. Matthias was not destitute of talents; but both he and Rudolf died without male issue, the former in 1619, the latter in 1612. Under Matthias the power of the states seems to have increased: they only granted subsidies to the emperor for specific purposes; and they exercised the right of electing a king of the Romans during his life-time and in spite of his opposition.

Ferdinand II., grandson of Ferdinand I., who now succeeded to the throne, had been educated in Spain, and appeared to be governed by this one prevailing maxim with regard to his duty as a monarch,—"that it was necessary that his own creed in matters of religion, should be the only mode of faith in his dominions; and in temporal affairs, his boundless authority, the only power."

Under this emperor, raged that great contest between the Protestants and Catholics, which, from the period of its duration has been called the Thirty Years' War: it is divided into its Palatine, Danish, Swedish, and French periods. Frederick, son-in-law of James I. of England, the fifth elector palatine of that name, being elected king of Bohemia by the states of that kingdom, carried on a war with the emperor. Being defeated, in 1620, at the battle of Prague, and abandoned by his allies, he was driven from Bohemia and deprived of his other states. Shortly afterwards Christian of Brunswick and Count Mansfeld, the Protestant leaders in the north of Germany, were completely defeated by Tilly. Christian IV. of Denmark then placed himself at the head of the confederacy against the emperor: he possessed the physical strength of the old Northern heroes, as well as their activity and love of glory, but his deficiencies as a statesman and in the science of war were so evident that he was quickly convinced of his own weakness: having lost, in 1626, the battle of Lutter, in which Tilly commanded the Austrian forces, he signed, three years after, a separate peace with the emperor. Wallenstein, admiral of the East Sea and duke of Mecklenburg, ravaged the north of Germany after the defeat of the king of Denmark: Stralsund alone held out against him, and was given up for protection to the Swedes in 1628. In 1630 Gustavus Adolphus landed at Usedom and assumed the command of the Protestants, whose cause now appeared to be desperate, but his brilliant campaigns turned the tide of success in their favour. On his death at the battle of Lutzen, the principal weight of the war rested on France. The French armies under the command of Turenne and Condé, and the Swedish, under Baner, Torstenston and Wrangel, were now decidedly triumphant, and brought the contest to a conclusion.

By the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, Sweden and France obtained districts of Germany; Brandenburg, Mecklenburg, and Brunswick-Luneburg received, as compensation, the secularized domains of the church; the Palatinate became the eighth electorate; the Protestants gained liberty of conscience; and the imperial authority over the princes of the empire was diminished.

This was the epoch of several important changes in the internal constitution of Germany: standing armies were now maintained, and a regular system of taxation established. The emperor Ferdinand III. died before the peace, in 1637, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III., at whose death, in 1658, Leopold I. ascended the throne. Notwithstanding the pacific disposition of this emperor, he was involved in several contests with Turkey and France; of the war of the Spanish succession he did not live to see the termination. In 1692, Brunswick-Luneburg was made the ninth electorate, much to the dissatisfaction of the elder branch of the family of Guelph. In 1701, Prussia became a kingdom, and its influence on the affairs of the empire gradually increased from this time. The son of Leopold, Joseph I., prosecuted the war of the Spanish succession, and placed the electors of Bavaria and Cologne under the bann of the empire for having made common cause with France. On the premature death of Joseph in 1711, his brother Charles VI. was invested with the imperial dignity. This prince was an ambitious competitor for the Spanish crown, but the peace of Rastadt in 1714 frustrated his projects. He succeeded, however, in establishing that celebrated Austrian family law respecting the succession, which is called the Pragmatic Sanction. In 1733, he took part in the Polish war in favour of Augustus III. of Saxony, against Stanislaus Lescinsky, who was favoured by Lewis XV.: it was terminated favourably for the Saxons, by the peace of Vienna in 1735. In 1739, peace was purchased from the Turks by the concession of Belgrade, Servia, and Orsova.

Charles VI. was the last male representative of the house of Hapsburg: at his death in 1740, his daughter Maria Theresa succeeded to the government of his hereditary possessions. But the prince elector, Charles Albert of Bavaria, disputed her right to the Austrian succession, and in 1742 opposed her as emperor of Germany, under the name of Charles VII. A war of eight years' duration ensued, which was concluded after the death of her rival, on terms favourable to Maria Theresa, who, in the mean time, had been involved in two wars respecting Silesia with Frederic II. of Prussia. On the 15th of September, 1745, her

husband, Francis I., was elected emperor of Germany. The dispute respecting Silesia continued, and gave rise to the Seven Years' War, which lasted till the peace of Hubertsburg, in 1763.

In 1765, Joseph II. succeeded his father as emperor. The first acts of his government were a revision of the administration of justice and of the system of finance: he next abolished the order of the Jesuits in his dominions, following the example of some other European sovereigns. The character of this prince and the tendency of the time were manifested by the secularization of monasteries, the edict of toleration of October 13, 1781, and the granting a greater share of liberty to the press than it had hitherto enjoyed. The insurrection in Belgium, and the renewal of the war against the Turks, troubled the last years of this emperor, who died oppressed with cares, February 20, 1790. Joseph was bold, but too precipitate; he had not sufficiently studied the temper of his subjects, and he outstripped their intelligence and their wants. He undertook an unequal contest against the voice of mankind, and the work of his life perished with him.

Leopold II., his brother, was now called from Tuscany to receive the imperial crown. In the succeeding year, Prussia interfered between the Austrians and the Turks, and peace was concluded. The storm of revolution which had long been gathering, and which had at length burst over France, threatened Germany also with devastation: on the 25th of August, 1791, Leopold and Frederic William II. of Prussia, entered into an alliance at Pilnitz, to maintain the integrity of the German constitution and empire, and to support the rights of the royal family of France. A few months afterwards, Leopold died, but his son and successor, Francis II., entered into the same league with Prussia. When the National Assembly declared war against Austria, the challenge was accepted by the whole German empire, November 23, 1792. After the unsuccessful campaign of the duke of Brunswick and other failures, Prussia and several other German states concluded a separate peace with the new republic in 1795; and two years afterwards, the war between France and Austria was interrupted by the treaty of Campo Formio. Negotiations

for peace between the empire and France were entered into at Rastadt, but they were frustrated by the renewal of hostilities in 1799. The peace of Luneville, which was concluded February 9, 1801, made the Rhine the boundary of France, to which the empire ceded a territory of more than 1200 square miles, and containing nearly 4,000,000 of inhabitants.

In 1804, Francis II. constituted Austria an hereditary empire, and soon afterwards, in conjunction with Russia, declared war against the emperor of the French. In the campaign which ensued, Ulm surrendered to the French, who on the 2nd of December, 1805, completely defeated the allied sovereigns at Austerlitz: the peace of Presburg concluded this war, in which, three states of the empire, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Baden, had taken part as allies of France. In the following year, sixteen German princes separated themselves from the empire, and formed a union, of which the constitution was organized at Paris, July, 1806, and laid before the general imperial assembly at Regensburg, on the succeeding 1st of August, by the French *chargé d'affaires*, Bacher. The union thus established was called the Rhenish Confederacy, and its members subjected themselves to the emperor of the French as their protector. This decisive measure was speedily followed by another.

Napoleon declared, "that he regarded this confederacy as a natural and necessary consequence of the peace of Presburg; that the diet had long ceased to have a will; that the union of Hanover with Prussia had abolished one electorate, and that the king of Sweden had incorporated one of the imperial provinces with his other states; that, therefore, he did not recognise the existence of the German constitution, but on the other hand, was ready to acknowledge the unlimited sovereignty of the princes whose territories had hitherto composed the empire, and enter into the same relations with them as with the other independent sovereign powers of Europe." By these means the German empire of millennial duration was dissolved: on the 6th of August, 1806, the Emperor Francis resigned the imperial crown, and declared his hereditary possessions to be separate from the German empire.

In 1806, the confederated states of the Rhine were called on to furnish troops for a fresh war of Napoleon against Prussia, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden. In October, the power of the first-mentioned kingdom was completely annihilated at Jena, and peace was shortly afterwards concluded at Tilsit. The Rhenish confederacy was now joined by eleven princes of Northern Germany; and in 1807, the kingdom of Westphalia was erected for Jerome Buonaparte out of Prussian, Hessian, and Brunswickian provinces.

In 1809, a new war broke out between France and Austria, on the 9th of April: between the 20th and 23rd of the same month, three battles were fought, at Abensberg, Eckmuhl, and Ratisbon; and Vienna capitulated on the 12th of May. By the peace of Vienna, of the 16th of October, Austria ceded the Illyrian provinces on the right bank of the Save to France; Saltzburg, to Bavaria; districts in Lusatia, and the whole of West Galicia, to Saxony; and the emperor consented to the marriage of his daughter with Napoleon. When Napoleon undertook his fatal expedition into Russia, in 1812, Austria and the numerous members of the Rhenish confederacy, were forced to furnish contingents to his army; and 100,000 Germans found their graves in the wilds of Russia. The French on their retreat from Moscow were severely pressed by the Russians; to whom the king of Prussia formally joined himself at Kalisch, February 28, 1813: at the same time, several states of the North flew to arms in the cause of liberation: insurrections broke out at Lubeck and Hamburg, and all Germany was agitated by the hope of a speedy emancipation from her disgraceful bondage. On the 10th of August, Austria deserted Napoleon and went over to the allies, whose arms, owing to their unanimity and enthusiasm, were soon to be crowned by permanent success. On the 8th of October, 1813, the Bavarians quitted the ranks of the oppressor to fight for their country's freedom, and ten days afterwards, the battle of Leipsic overthrew the domination of the French in Germany. The Rhenish confederacy now fell to ruins; the king of Wurtemberg joined the allies on the 2nd of November, and the other sovereigns of the South shortly followed his example. The

French retreated beyond the Rhine, and were pursued by the allies, who entered Paris, March 31, 1814. On the 30th of May, peace was concluded at Paris: France restored all its conquests, with the exception of Montbeillard and a few small districts.

It was decided that the German states should remain independent, but connected by a federative union, which was shortly afterwards established by the congress of Vienna. Thus, Germany has ceased to be a single, united empire, and is changed into a union of states, which are bound by a system of co-ordination, but not of subordination: they are collectively represented by a diet, which held its first sitting at Frankfort, November 5, 1816.

In order to animate their subjects in the war which was waged against Napoleon for the national existence, some of the sovereigns promised to present them with a constitutional form of government, in the room of an arbitrary one,—and, at the conclusion of that vehement and honourable struggle, they redeemed their pledge in various modes and seasons. If the sanguine have not obtained all that they expected, and if the immediate results have not been satisfactory to all,—something must be allowed to the suddenness of the measure, to the imperfections inseparable from a first experiment, and to the want of training and apprenticeship. For a nation does not accustom itself in a few years to constitutional forms; they must grow even through centuries to maturity before the fruit can be abundant, wholesome and grateful. One of the most fatal political errors of our age, is the belief that every people are ripe for a constitution,—and that all, in the first moment of fruition, are capable of converting possession into happiness. The soil must first undergo a slow preparatory cultivation, and many a harvest must be reaped without present profit—but still not all in vain.*

* The English language is not very rich in histories of Germany, but we may refer the reader to Charles Butler's Succinct History of the Revolutions of the Empire of Germany (1812), Halliday's Works on the History of Hanover, Brunswick, and the Guelphs; Dunham's History of the Germanic Empire, in 3 vols., forming a part of Lardner's Cyclopædia (1834-5); and, above all, to the Universal History of John von Müller, eloquently translated by Dr. Prichard, 3 vols. (1818). See also Greenwood's History of Germany, as far as the year 774. (4to.)

CHAPTER II.

GENERAL VIEW OF GERMANY.

Name, Position, Surface, Climate; Rivers, Canals, Railroads, Products; Population, Language, Universities, Periodicals, Theatres; Manufactures, Exports and Imports, the New Commercial Union; Political Constitution. General Statistical View of each of the States forming the German Confederation.

Of all the leading European countries, Germany is the least familiarly known, and until a recent period, the least frequented by strangers, if we except two or three of its Baths, which were anything but German in their manners and aspect. This obscurity, which is, happily, daily yielding to a brighter dawn, has been protracted by a variety of causes. One of the chief of these has been the later development of its literary and artistical genius,—another has been the difficulty of the language, and the too long adherence to the Gothic letters, which have frightened many a timid student, and, which, it is to be hoped, will soon be entirely disused. It is true that this old method of printing has been valued by some as a national characteristic, but it is assuredly one of no value; and it would be well, also, if the peculiar manner of hand-writing were discarded at the same sweep. The excessive cultivation of the French language in almost all the schools of Europe, and more particularly in our own; its general employment in diplomacy, and the overweening partiality formerly entertained towards it among the higher ranks of Germany, have proved powerful impediments to a better knowledge of this great country. Bad roads, inconvenient conveyance, and frequent occupations of armies, may be also added to the catalogue of obstacles which no longer exist.

The name of Germany is believed be derived from two words, the first of which means either war, or a sword, and the second is a man; together they imply bravery, as does the word Frank.

The Germany of the ancients covered a much larger space than that of our own time, as it appears to have designated not only the actual Germany, but also other regions which have been before enumerated. The people who inhabited these countries were called Teutones, perhaps from the name of one of their deities, hence the common appellation of *Teutonic* applied to all the Germanic family, and hence also the word *Teutschland* or *Deutschland.* The etymology of the word *Alemanni*, whence *Allemagne*, is so variously given that I shall not pretend to interpret it.

Placed in the centre of Europe, Germany forms nearly the fourteenth part of that quarter of the world, and about the two hundred and ninth part of the world itself. It is larger than the whole of Great Britain of Ireland and of Italy taken together, larger than France, Belgium and Holland taken together, and, in its whole extent, it comprises, including rivers and lakes, 248,832 English square miles. Its length on the Baltic amounts to eighty-three German miles; on the German ocean to nearly thirty-six German miles, and on the Adriatic Sea to forty German miles, and its entire extent of coast, consequently, ranges as far as one hundred and fifty-nine German miles.*

The physical aspect of the country presents every variety of feature. In the north it is level, and includes extensive sandy districts, and large peat marshes; and in this direction, the coast is in some places so low as to require dikes in order to defend it against the sea. The centre and the south are diversified by noble mountains. In rivers it is more favoured than any other European country; the Rhine runs one hundred and ninety German miles, during a greater part of which it continues navigable; the Elbe extends five hundred and seventy-five English miles in length, and is also a navigable stream; and the grand Danube does not complete the list, while it appears destined, hereafter, to eclipse all the others in political importance.

The climate of Germany seems to have altered its character

* The student who desires an exact account of German measures of length and value will refer to Itineraries and Geographies; but, for the sake of assisting the general reader in forming round comparisons, the German mile may be rated at four miles English; the florin at two shillings, and the thaler, or dollar, at four shillings; this is not an exact computation, but the most convenient one.

under the influence of civilization. It was intensely cold in the age of Cæsar and of Tacitus, but the country was at that period uncultivated, barren, cheerless—beset with marshes and with immense gloomy forests. The Hercynian forest is said, in the time of Cæsar, to have been nine days' journey in length, and six in breadth; it is now lost in various woods, which are called by separate names. At present several extensive forests still stud the traveller's road, and the mountains are often crowned with picturesque woods. The care of these forests occupies a large population, of various degrees of rank and education, and lends a peculiar trait to German life, and not the only one which originates in its local circumstances. It is in the mountains and forests of Germany that we must wander in search of wild tradition, fairy lore, and still surviving specimens of bold, racy, pastoral character, starting in rude relief from above the surrounding tamer level of cities and of commerce.

In the north of Germany the air is moist, and colder than in the mountainous central districts. The south is more dry than the north, but less warm than the central parts. Winter reigns almost constantly in the higher mountains, or yields but for a transient moment to the sunbeam; but in the narrow valleys which abound in the mountainous ranges, the atmosphere is often oppressively close. In the Southern Tyrol, and the country which borders the Adriatic, we breathe almost an Italian air, and witness southern fruits in a kindred element. The climate of Germany has been by Malte Brun divided into three great zones, which admit also of subdivisions. The first embraces the northern plains, more damp than cold, and exposed to vicissitudes from every wind. It is open to the influence of two seas, but the north-west plain is most foggy and least cold, while the north-east plain suffers most from tempests. The second zone contains all the middle part of Germany, Moravia, Bohemia, Saxony, Franconia, Suabia, the Rhine country, and Hesse-Cassel; here the mountains protect from the sea, the seasons are not interrupted in their natural progress by the winds, and fogs are not common, but the elevation of the soil diminishes the degree of warmth which is natural to that latitude when on the level of the ocean.

This is considered by Malte Brun the most agreeable climate of Germany, the most wholesome, and the most favourable to the vine. The third zone is that of the Alps, where the considerable elevation and the rapid declivities produce the extremes of temperature—eternal glaciers in one part, perfumed valleys in another, and an alternate rude health and decline of the vineyard.

The principal German rivers are the Rhine, into which flow the Wutach, Wiesen, Kauder, Treisam, Kinzig, Rench, Murg, Neckar, Main, Mosel, Lahn; the Danube which receives the Iller, Biber, Ilm, Usel, Inn, Ens, Steyer; the Weser which is formed by the junction of the Werra and the Fulda; the Elbe into which flow the Moldau, Mulde, Saale, the Oder and the Etsch. The Vistula also rises in Germany.

There are not many canals in Germany; the principal are the Eider canal, the Plauen canal between the Elbe and the Havel; the Finow and Mullroese canals, the latter between the Spree and the Oder; the canal in Bavaria between the Isar and the Ammer, the Papenburg canals; the Vienna canal, from that city to beyond Neustadt; and the canal which unites the Steckenitz with the Trave at Lubeck.

Railroads are not neglected in Germany, but their extension depends on the will of the governments, which does not always correspond with the interests of individuals. A statement has been made, we know not how correctly, that the king of Prussia stipulates in his permission to railroad companies, that all such railroads may be taken possession of by his government at any time, on making a compensation to the existing shareholders:—and that at the end of ninety years, all such railroads shall become unconditionally the property of the state. A railroad has been commenced between Antwerp and Cologne; another is contemplated between Cologne and Amsterdam. Between Dresden and Leipzig, and between Vienna and Brünn, railroads are in progress, or already completed. Bavaria has the honour of having opened the first one in Germany for steam-carriages: this was from Furth to Nuremberg. From Linz there is a rail-road as far as Gmünden, and another from Linz to Budweis. These railroads are not all traversed by steam-carriages.

The principal mineral products are: silver, (123,000 marks annually,) found chiefly in the Erzgebirge, and in the Harz; gold (182 marks); iron (3,000,000 cwt); copper (39,000 cwt.); tin (8,000 cwt.); lead (200,000 cwt.); quicksilver (6,180 cwt.), in Idria and Zweibrucken; cinnabar (8,000 cwt.); cobalt (16,000 cwt.); zinc; sulphur; coal; marble; alabaster; gypsum; alum; vitriol; bismuth; antimony; saltpetre; lime; asbestos; slate, grinding, rolling, mill, sand and pumice stones; chalcedony; basalt; agate; amethysts; granite; porphyry; precious stones; great quantities of spring and rock salt (6,000,000 cwt. is produced by seventy-six salt-works, now in operation). The chief vegetable products are: corn, maize, buck-wheat, garden fruits, pulse, potatoes, hemp, flax, hops, rapeseed, madder, woad, saffron, aniseed, liquorice-wood, coriander-seeds, mustard. The most common trees are oaks, beeches, firs, pines, larches, alders, birch. Of wine thirteen million *eimer* annually are made on the Rhine, Neckar, Main, near Meissen and Naumburg in Saxony, in Austria and Bohemia.

Among the animals of Germany are: abundant horned cattle (calculated at 14,000,000); horses (about 2,000,000), of which the best breeds are in Mecklenburg, Holstein, Oldenburg and East Friesland; sheep (26,000,000) of which there are fine breeds in Brandenburg and Saxony, and a peculiar one with coarse wool found only on the heath of Luneburg; swine (8,000,000); goats; asses; mules and deer. In the south also are found bears, wolves, lynxes, the chamois, marmots, foxes, otters, and beavers. There are also tame and wild fowl, as black-cocks and partridges. Geese abound in Pomerania, East Friesland, and Mecklenburg. There are quantities of bees and silk-worms. The principal fish are sturgeon, pike, salmon, carp, tench, eels, lampreys, Swedish anchovies, trout; crabs and other shell-fish.

The number of inhabitants was, at the close of the year 1837, 37,336,825. The annual proportion of births to the population is one in twenty-seven, of deaths one in forty-five, and of marriages, one in a hundred. Such is the recent statement of Moreau de Jonnès, with respect to Germany, at large,—but in the various

individual states these numbers are different in amount. On the whole it appears that marriages are more numerous in proportion in Germany than in any other European state,—that births are more numerous there in proportion to the population, than in France, England, and Scotland,—and that the annual proportion of deaths is also greater than in Great Britain*. There are 2390 cities, of which thirty-four contain more than 20,000 inhabitants; 2340 towns, 104,000 villages and hamlets, and 5,025,000 houses. The inhabitants belong to two separate races; 27,705,000 are Germans, and 5,325,000 are Sclavonians, who are scattered throughout the east of Germany. The population includes likewise 188,000 Italians, in Illyria and the Tyrol; and about 300,000 French and Walloons. 18,376,000 Germans are Catholics, who still send to Rome about 300,000 florins annually, for dispensations; and 15,145,600 are Protestants. To these must be added 25,000 Moravian brothers, 5,000 Mennonites, 2,000 belonging to the Greek Church, 292,500 Jews, a few Quakers and other sectarians.

The number of paupers in Germany (excluding Austria and Prussia) is estimated by Schmidt at one in twenty of the whole population. The proportion of the agricultural population to the other inhabitants in all Germany (exclusive of Austria and Prussia) is rated by Schmidt as three to one†. The German language has doubtless an Asiatic origin, and is thought by some to have been derived from the Sanscrit, and by others from the Persian. The first traces of its cultivation in Europe are furnished by the labours of Bishop Ulfilas, a Goth, who flourished in the latter half of the fourth century, and who translated the Evangelists into a language, which is generally called Gothic, but which is in fact the basis of Upper German *(Ober Deutsch)*. This latter, which was once spoken all over Southern Germany, and compared with which the Lower German *(Nieder Deutsch* or *Platt Deutsch)* was only an insignificant dialect, is not to be confounded with the High German (*Hoch Deustch*) of our days,

* Moreau de Jonnès. Statistique de la Grande Bretagne et de l'Irlande.—1837-8.

† Untersachungen über Berolkerung Arbeitslohn, und Pauperism, von Dr. F. Schmidt (Leipzig, 1836).

which is a language of, comparatively speaking, very modern origin, which was not spoken originally by any particular race, but which in modern times has been gradually formed out of the other dialects by the labours of the learned. This language is principally derived from the Upper German *(Ober Deutsch)*, but it is not the same. The latter first began to be really cultivated in the eighth century, under Charlemagne. Afterwards the Minnesingers contributed greatly to polish and perfect it. High German *(Hoch Deutsch)* may be said to have been modelled by Luther when he translated the Bible. With him commence the history and literature of the German language as we have it at present. The principal dialects at present spoken are, the *Aleman* in Suabia, the *Franconian*, the *Bavarian*, the *Thuringian*, the idiom of the Lower Rhine, the *Platt Deutsch* in the north of Germany, and those of North-eastern Prussia.

The peculiar facility which this language possesses in forming new expressions, or, in other words, its vigorous creative faculty, prevents it from attaining a complete stage of existence; it is always in transition. The great writers continually invent new words, which rapidly find their way into the national idiom. Sporschil observes in his Dictionary, that the two words *Wunder** and *Zauber*† will suffice to exemplify this exuberance. There are few productions of nature and art, few objects of hill, field, or valley, that would not admit of an intelligible and expressive form, when compounded with these two words‡. The German language is very unequally spoken; a remarkable variety on point of correctness and elegance prevails even among persons of education. Indeed it is not uncommon to hear it remarked of a German gentleman, that he speaks his language well. On the whole, probably, the German language is nowhere heard in higher perfection than in the city of Hanover.

The universities are remarkably numerous; there are twenty-three, viz: those of Berlin, Gottingen, Halle, Breslau, Leipsic, Heidelberg, Jena, Munich, Innspruck, Graetz, Prague, Vienna,

* *Wonder.* † *Magic.*

‡ Vollstandiges Englisch-Deutschis, und Deutsch-Englishes Wörterbuch, page vi. Leipzig, 1838.

Greifswalde, Wurzburg, Erlangen, Tubingen, Freiburg, Marburg, Giessen, Kiel, Konigsberg, Rostock and Bonn. Of these seven are Catholic: three, viz. Breslau, Bonn, and Tubingen, both Catholic and Protestant, and all the rest are Protestant.

In 1830, there were at these universities 890 teachers and nearly 19,000 students. The annual expenditure of the respective governments upon them is, at Bonn 150,000 florins, at Giessen 47,791, at Heidelberg 74,000, at Tubingen 100,000, at Breslau 91,000, at Halle 98,000, at Erlangen 72,800, and at Jena 75,000 florins. There are 370 gymnasiums, and 150 places containing public libraries. In Germany there are more authors than in any other European nation: the number at present amounts to about 10,000. In 1833, there were 121 political daily and weekly newspapers, and 284 non-political newspapers, without enumerating different advertising and official papers, and 161 periodical journals.

Permanent theatres are established in fifty-two cities; and there are also more than thirty itinerant companies. The best theatres are at Berlin, Vienna, Weimar, Munich, Brunswick, Frankfort on the Maine, Hamburg, Nuremberg and Dresden. In 1829, the entire number of persons employed in the German theatres was 3,500, which may therefore be considered as the sum total of the Thespian profession.

The chief German manufactories are, of linen, in Silesia, Bohemia, Westphalia; of woollen goods, on the Lower Rhine, in Saxony, Silesia, Brandenburg, &c.; of silk, leather, cotton goods and lace in the Erzgebirge; of tapestry, paper, and glass in Bohemia and Silesia; of mirrors, near Nuremberg; of china, at Berlin, Meissen, and Vienna; of delft-ware, of which there are fifty-five, and which together with the twenty-five of china, employ about 8,000 men; of jewellery, at Berlin and Augsburg; of iron wares, in Westphalia and the Rhenish countries; of fire-arms and sword-blades, at Spandau, Potsdam, and several other places; of cannon, at several capitals; of gunpowder, tobacco, artificial flowers, straw-hats, musical and other instruments, beer, brandy, liqueurs, vitriol, and sugar. The principal exports are, wood, corn (to the value of 10,000,000 of dollars),

wine, linen, (formerly to the value of 30,000,000 of dollars), thread, iron, steel, Nuremberg wares, china, quicksilver, glass, mirrors, cattle, fruit, wool, salt, potash, smoked and salt meats, earthenware, wax, leather, lead, woollen and cotton goods, lace, rags, bones, quills, skins, alum, lead, vitriol, cinnabar, and brass wire. The chief imports are wine, tobacco, southern fruits, colonial goods, millinery, fancy ornaments, and Russian linseed (to the value of 1,000,000 dollars annually). The most important maritime towns are, Hamburg, Altona, Bremen, Emden, Lubeck, Rostock, Stettin, Trieste, Wismar; and the principal places for inland trade are, Vienna, Leipsic, Augsburg, Breslau, Berlin, Frankfort on the Maine, and Frankfort on the Oder, Nuremberg, Brunswick, Aix-la-Chapelle, Cologne, Elberfeld, Mainz, Botzen, and Prague. The most important fairs are at Leipsic, Frankfort on the Maine, Naumburg, Brunswick, Botzen, and Offenbach.

The commercial union lately formed, at the instigation and under the direction of Prussia, among several German states, and which is accordingly denominated in the *Conversations Lexicon*, the Prussian-German *Zoll Verein*—demands some mention. The avowed object is to encourage German trade, and to unite all under one common system of customs. The partners in this union have agreed to establish one same scale of duties, to get rid of all intermediate custom-houses, and to divide among the partner states the profits accruing, in proportion to the population of each. Thus, the restraints on internal transport have been mitigated. The following states compose the association: Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Wurtemberg, Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt, Cassel, Nassau, Frankfort on the Maine;—Hanover, and Brunswick, and the Hanse Towns, have hitherto stood aloof. In 1835 an union was formed between Hanover, Brunswick, and Oldenburg; this combination endeavoured to gain over to its party, Lippe-Schaumburg, and Lippe-Detmold;—and has finally acceded to a conjoint union with the Germanic Commercial Association. Holstein is neutral. Mecklenburg has entered into a treaty with France. Austria has all along remained independent, but it appears that a commercial treaty is likely to be formed between her and

England; two states which seem eminently calculated to render mutual service to each other, both in peace and war, and which are united by long interchange of good offices.

The political constitution of Germany was fixed by the treaty of Vienna, concluded June 8, 1815; according to which, the sovereign princes and free towns form the Germanic confederation, the object of which is the maintenance of the external and internal safety of Germany, and the independence and inviolability of the several states. The affairs of the confederation are regulated by a diet, the members of which have, through the medium of their plenipotentiaries, many of them separate and entire votes, and others, collective votes. Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, Wurtemberg, Baden, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Darmstadt, Holstein, and Luxemburg, have each one vote. The grand-ducal and ducal houses have one conjointly; as also Brunswick and Nassau; the two Mecklenburgs; Oldenburg, Anhalt, and Schwarzburg; Hohenzollern, Lichtenstein, Reuss, Lippe, and Waldeck; and finally, the free towns; thus there are altogether seventeen votes. Austria has the presidency of the diet. Each member is entitled to originate and bring forward propositions, which the diet is bound to deliberate upon within a certain period.

When a proposition relates to the formation and alteration of the fundamental laws of the confederation, when it refers to the federal act itself, or to the organic federal institutions, or when it involves arrangements of any kind, which are of general importance, the assembly is formed into a *plenum*, in which case, however, in consideration of the difference in the extent of the several federal states, the following proportionate distribution of votes has been agreed upon: Austria, Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, Hanover, and Wurtemberg have each four; Baden, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Darmstadt, Holstein, and Luxemburg, each three; Brunswick, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and Nassau, have each two votes; Weimar, Altenburg, Meiningen, Coburg-Gotha, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Oldenburg, the three Anhalts, the two Schwarzburgs, the two Hohenzollerns, Lichtenstein, Waldeck, the two branches of Reuss, Lippe-Schaumburg, Lippe-Detmold, Hesse-Homburg, Lubeck, Frankfort, Bremen, and Hamburg, each one; making altogether sixty-nine votes.

The question as to whether any particular subject require the decision of the *Plenum* is determined by a majority of votes in the smaller assembly, where also all decisions which have to be submitted to the *Plenum* are prepared. In both, a majority of votes decides the question, but in the latter it must consist of two-thirds of the whole number of voices. Moreover, in all cases where the alteration of a fundamental law is agitated, or when the question to be decided affects the organic federal institutions, or matters of religion, a majority in either assembly of less than two-thirds is invalid. The diet is permanent, but is enabled, when the subjects of deliberation are disposed of, to adjourn for a certain time not exceeding four months.

To those readers who may desire to obtain an intimate acquaintance with the topography, local history, antiquities and amusements of Germany, we are glad to have an opportunity of recommending two excellent volumes which have recently appeared, and which surpass all their predecessors in variety and minuteness; these are, the *Handbook for Travellers on the Continent, including Northern Germany*, and the *Handbook for Travellers in Southern Germany.* It is but justice to declare that no work of the same extent at all equal in value, has appeared, even in the German language; the *Guide* of Reichard improved by subsequent editors, comes the nearest to it, but still with a long interval.

We shall conclude this miscellaneous chapter with a tabular view of all the German states, arranged according to their comparative rank, and displaying their extent, population, revenue, and military contingent, or contribution to the army of the confederation.

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION.

States.	Area in Geographical Square Miles.	Population in 1831.	Contingent to the Army of the Confederation	Revenue in Convention Florins.	Inhabitants to Sq. Mile.
1 Austria	3,667.85	10,374,736	94,822	70,500,000	3,142
2 Prussia	3,359.28	9,986,755	79,234	70,000,000	3,096
3 Bavaria	1,477.26	4,187,397	35,800	28,000,836	2,874
4 Saxony	271.67	1,558,553	12,000	11,000,000	5,873
5 Hanover	695.27	1,662,500	13,054	11,000,000	2,402
6 Wurtemberg	359.20	1,587,448	13,955	11,000,000	4,706
7 Baden	279.54	1,208,697	10,000	10,393,606	4,526
8 Hesse-Cassel	208.90	677,849	5,679	5,200,000	3,300
9 Hesse-Darmstadt	177	736,919	6,195	5,296,000	4,436
10 Holstein	172.55	410,385	3,900	2,400,000	2,555
11 Luxemburg	108.60	315,000	2,556	1,800,000	2,808
12 Saxe-Weimar	66.82	238,672	2,010	1,875,000	3,608
13 Saxe-Altenburg	23.41	114,048	982	682,560	5,028
14 Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	37.60	130,231	1,366	1,200,000	3,607
15 Saxe-Meiningen	41.72	142,064	1,150	1,100,000	3,504
16 Brunswick	70.87	245,783	2,096	2,376,933	3,540
17 Mecklenburg-Schwerin	223.88	463,362	3,580	2,300,000	2,046
18 Mecklenburg-Strelitz	36.18	85,418	717	500,000	2,361
19 Oldenburg	116	250,000	2,177	1,500,000	2,224
20 Nassau	82.7	362,652	3,028	2,810,000	4,385
21 Anhalt-Dessau	17	57,629	529	710,000	3,390
22 Anhalt-Bernburg	16	43,325	370	450,000	2,821
23 Anhalt-Kothen	15	36,000	325	400,000	2,677
24 Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	16.90	54,080	451	400,000	3,122
25 Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	19.10	62,000	539	325,000	2,257
26 Hohenzollern-Hechingen	6.50	21,000	145	130,000	3,230
27 Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen	18.25	42,341	370	300,000	2,320
28 Lichtenstein	2.45	5,800	55	22,000	2,387
29 Reuss (elder line)	6.84	25,500	206	140,000	4,413
30 Reuss (younger line)	21.10	59,500	538	470,000	3,263
31 Lippe-Detmold	20.60	77,500	690	490,000	3,724
32 Schaumburg-Lippe	9.75	23,128	240	215,000	2,830
33 Waldeck	21.66	56,000	518	400,000	2,585
34 Hesse Homburg	7.84	23,000	200	180,000	2,948
35 Lubeck	6.75	46,503	406	400,000	6,962
36 Frankfort	4.83	54,000	475	760,000	12,471
37 Bremen	3.21	52,000	485	700,000	11,560
38 Hamburg	7.10	154,000	1,298	1,500,000	19,818
Total	11,599.28	34,838,423	302,272	248,936,935	

CHAPTER III.

THE MEDIATISED PRINCES OF GERMANY.

View of the Extent and Population of their Domains, and of their Revenues.

Previously to the revolutionary wars, and to the invasion of the French, Germany was divided into about three hundred sovereignties, and their temporal and ecclesiastical rulers possessed all the attributes of kings, with the exception of their allegiance to the emperor of Germany. A great part of them were swept away by the political tempests, and became mediatised, or merged in the greater states*.

In order to establish a permanent, uniform, and legal position of the formerly independent mediatised princes, who became mediate in and since the year 1806, the German powers have agreed on the following points:—

First, That all mediatised princes and counts should be placed amongst the high nobility of Germany, together with which the right of equal birth should be conceded to them.

Secondly, That they should be the principal noblemen of the states to which they belong, where also they and their families should form the privileged class, more particularly in respect to taxation.

Thirdly, That they shall permanently possess all those rights

* The German empire, as it was then called, was divided into nine circles, Austria, Bavaria, Suabia, Franconia, the Upper Rhine and the Lower Rhine, Westphalia, Upper Saxony and Lower Saxony. There were also some districts which were not included in any one of the nine circles, and yet were considered as belonging to the German empire, such as Moravia, Lusatia, Silesia, Bohemia, and others. The Austrian Low Countries, which had once formed the circle of Burgundy, had long ceased to be considered as a part of the empire. These circles contained a multitude of small independent states; there were also fifty-one imperial cities, constituting so many republics.

Those who wish to study the fine old Gothic and feudal forms of *Old Germany*, with all its curious appendages, should consult *Busching's Geography*. (English Trans., 6 vols. 4to.)

and privileges, in respect to their persons, family, and property, which are connected with the tenure and enjoyment of their possessions, and which do not interfere with the higher rights of government, and with the executive.

Austria ratified these provisions, and decreed, Sept. 9, 1825, that the titles of the mediatised princes should correspond to their independent ones. Thus the predicate *Durchlaucht* * is conceded to princes, and the predicate *Erlaucht* † to counts. Since 1833, the predicate *Durchlaucht*, which was formerly only possessed by the chief of the house, has been assumed by all its members.

The following catalogue of the mediatised princes and counts, has been obtained from Hassel's *Statistischer Umriss der Sämmtlichen Europäischen Stauten*, published in 1823. The population and revenues have, of course, fluctuated since that date.

* Serene Highness. † Highness.

I. Names of the Mediatised Princes.	* Sovereignties to which they are subject.	Extent of Territory in Geographical Sq. Miles.	Population.	Total Revenue in Convention Florins.
1 Aremberg	Prussia and Hanover	44.88	71,158	400,000
2 Baden-Hochberg	Baden	1.70	2,430	20,000
3 Bentheim-Bentheim	Hanover and Prussia	19.90	28,780	160,000
4 Bentheim-Tecklenburg	Prussia	3.25	10,493	60,000
5 Colloredo	Wurtemberg	.60	1,894	110,000
6 Croy	Prussia	5.50	10,870	60,000
7 Dietrichstein	Wurtemberg	.50	859	180,000
8 Eichstedt	Bavaria	10.25	23,851	30,000
9 Esterhazy	Ditto	.10	870	1,500,000
10 Furstenberg	Wurtemberg, Baden	37.21	85,071	600,000
11 Fugger-Babenhausen	Bavaria	7	11,011	70,000
12 Hesse	Prussia	2.25	12,584	30,000
13 Hohenlohe-Barbenstein	Wurtemberg	7	23,000	100,000
14 Hohenlohe-Iaxtberg	Ditto	5.50	10,800	80,000
15 Hohenlohe-Kirchberg	Ditto	2.50	8,000	50,000
16 Hohenlohe-Langenburg	Ditto	2.50	8,000	50,000
17 Hohenlohe-Oehringen	Ditto	8.50	28,000	100,000
18 Hohenlohe-Schillingsfurst	Bavaria & Wurtemberg	4.50	14,558	90,000
19 Hohenlohe-Wallerstein	Wurtemberg	6.44	17,698	90,000
20 Isenburg-Bierstein	Hesse-Cassel, Hesse	6.39	26,057	150,000
21 Kaunitz	Prussia	3.33	11,359	170,000
22 Leiningen-Amorbach	Bavaria, Baden	24.82	87,010	570,000
23 Leyen	Baden	2.38	4,620	120,000
24 Lowenstein-Freudenberg	Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Hesse	8.35	21,708	170,000
25 Lowenstein-Rosenberg	Do., Baden, Do., Hesse	10.03	28,352	350,000
26 Looz-Corswaren	Prussia and Hanover	15	12,511	150,000
27 Metternich	Wurtemberg	2.70	5,939	180,000
28 Oesterreich-Schaumburg	Nassau	1.80	3,581	25,000
29 Oettingen-Oettingen	Bavaria, Wurtemberg	3.60	13,910	110,000
30 Oettingen-Wallerstein	Ditto, Ditto	14.44	41,954	300,000
31 Salm-Horstmar	Prussia	31	45,779	200,000
32 Salm-Kirburg	Ditto	14.10	33,473	180,000
33 Salm-Krautheim	Wurtemberg, Baden	4.09	15,005	100,000
34 Salm-Salm	Prussia	20.50	38,875	210,000
35 Schonburg-Glaucha	Saxony	3.83	15,000	40,000
36 Schonburg-Penigk	Ditto	3.05	20,000	45,000
37 Schonburg-Rochsburg	Ditto	1.90	6,500	20,000
38 Schonburg-Waldenburg	Ditto	5.21	42,500	80,000
39 Schwarzenburg	Bavaria	5.00	10,679	300,000
40 Solms-Braunfels	Prussia, Wurtemberg, Hesse	9.45	27,743	105,000
41 Solms-Hohensolms and Lich	Prussia and Hesse	4	9,033	60,000
42 Stolberg-Wernigerode	Ditto, Ditto	6.14	16,736	300,000
43 Thurn and Taxis	Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Hohenzollern	12.88	30,746	350,000
44 Waldburg-Trauchburg	Wurtemberg	4.50	9,700	40,000
45 Waldburg-Waldsee	Ditto	6	15,000	70,000
46 Waldburg-Wurzach	Ditto	3	6,900	30,000
47 Wied-Neuwied	Prussia and Nassau	5.07	16,609	70,000
48 Wied-Runkel	Ditto, Ditto	7.88	22,289	110,000
49 Windischgratz	Wurtemberg	1.25	2,235	100,000
50 Witgenstein-Burleburg	Prussia	8.70	16,569	85,000
51 Witgenstein-Witgenstein	Ditto	4.85	10,777	90,000
	Total	422.83	1,049,820	

II. Names of Mediatised Counts.	Sovereignties to which they are subject.	Extent of Territory in Geographical Square Miles.	Population.	Total Revenue in Convention Florins.
1 Aspremont	Bavaria	.10	281	50,000
2 Bentinck	Holstein, Oldenburg	1.25	2,820	110,000
3 Bömelberg (Freiherr)	Prussia	1	2,800	15,000
4 Castel-Remlingen	Bavaria	3.42	4,929	25,000
5 Castel-Rudenhausen	Ditto	2.13	4,520	20,000
6 Erbach-Erbach	Ditto, Hesse	4.25	11,691	50,000
7 Erbach-Fürstenau	Hesse	3.55	9,815	40,000
8 Erbach-Schœnberg	Ditto	3.18	11,914	50,000
9 Fugger-Dietenheim	Wurtemberg	1	2,007	12,000
10 Fugger-Glött	Bavaria	1.30	3,912	15,000
11 Fugger-Kirchberg	Ditto, Wurtemberg	4.25	11,980	60,000
12 Fugger-Kirchheim	Bavaria	1.25	2,334	20,000
13 Fugger-Nordendorf	Do. and Wurtemberg	.40	1,274	10,000
14 Giech	Bavaria	4	12,000	45,000
15 Grote	Prussia	.10	518	10,000
16 Isenburg-Büdingen	Hesse	3.15	10,960	45,000
17 Isenburg-Meerholz	Do. and Wurtemberg	3.96	10,167	50,000
18 Isenburg-Wächtersbach	Ditto	1.70	5,104	35,000
19 Königseck Autendorf	Wurtemberg	2.90	3,062	90,000
20 Leiningen-Billigheim	Baden	.60	1,963	15,000
21 Leiningen-Neudenau	Ditto	.58	1,860	14,000
22 Leiningen-Westerburg	Hesse, Nassau	2.15	4,363	45,000
23 Neipperg	Wurtemberg	1.75	3,175	25,000
24 Ortenburg	Bavaria	1.25	2,300	36,000
25 Pappenheim	Ditto	3.50	7,117	50,000
26 Plettenberg	Wurtemberg	.50	1,250	84,000
27 Pückler	Ditto	1.20	3,855	12,000
28 Quadt	Ditto	.45	2,090	32,000
29 Rechturn-Lempurg	Bavaria	3.03	6,697	25,000
30 Schülsberg	Wurtemberg	1.25	1,200	40,000
31 Schonborn	Bavaria	2.75	5,296	75,000
32 Solms-Laubach	Hesse, Saxony	4.66	10,990	30,000
33 Solms-Rödelheim	Ditto and Cassel	2.55	5,681	30,000
34 Stadion	Bavaria	.75	1,478	100,000
35 Sternberg	Wurtemberg	2.65	3,497	70,000
36 Stolberg-Rosla	Prussia, Hesse	5.30	11,028	30,000
37 Stolberg-Stolberg	Prussia	4.20	5,265	15,000
38 Torring	Wurtemberg	1.25	1,938	15,000
39 Waldbols-Bassenheim	Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Nassau	1.50	4,291	30,000
40 Waldeck-Bergheim	Wurtemberg	.25	930	12,000
41 Walmoden	Prussia	5	13,564	35,000
42 Wartenberg	Wurtemberg	1.50	2,871	48,000
Total amount of the mediatised territories of Counts, and their population		91.34	214,761	
Ditto of Princes		422.33	1,049,820	
Aggregate		513.67	1,264,581	

CHAPTER IV.

THE NOBILITY OF GERMANY.

View of its general History, The Austrian Nobility. The Bavarian Nobility. The Suabian and Rhenish Nobility. The Brunswick Nobility. The Prussian Nobility. Sketch of the present state of the German Nobility.

A COMPLETE history of the nobility of Europe is a blank which remains to be filled up in modern literature. No class of men has undergone such cruel reverses, and none has borne them with so much fortitude. None have contributed so largely to the encouragement of literature and the fine arts; none have done so much to embellish their respective countries. Such a class has always existed, and will always continue to exist, under whatever appellation they may be designated. Whether the title of noble be conceded to them or not,—still, in republics as well as in monarchics, certain individuals will be prominent through a great name achieved by their forefathers, through great possessions, and through personal distinction won by themselves. In our own country, the nobles have gradually obtained for us some of the dearest privileges which we enjoy.

The German nobility does not possess all the moral influence which it is essential to the well-being of society that this order should exercise. This is partly to be attributed to their excessive number, and to the careless and sometimes sordid manner in which the rank has been multiplied; partly to the circumstance of the title being participated by all the sons; partly to their former reluctance to engage in any pursuit except the army and the court; and partly to their mistaken aversion to intermarry with families not endowed with the requisite quarterings. But these matters will be better illustrated by a view of their political and social progress from a remote epoch downwards.

The character of the German nobility, like that of the French and Italian, has undergone in modern times an essential change. Throughout the middle ages, and down indeed to the peace of Westphalia, the position which the nobles maintained in the state was diametrically opposed to that which they hold at present. We find them formerly more or less independent, and, generally, inimical to the sovereign power. They used frequently to intimidate the monarch by threatening to refuse him pecuniary supplies, or the military services of themselves and their vassals for the defence of the state. In their own possessions they ruled without control, and exercised considerable influence on the general government. In most of the German states they met as a diet, to counsel with the prince, and discuss topics of common interest. In their original and most simple form, these deliberations were mere conversations, and were known by no other name. Subsequently they received a regular constitution, and the qualifications of those entitled to take part in them were distinctly defined. The members of the diet were the officials at court, such as the chamberlains, marshals, and cupbearers *; the chief officers of government, the principal prelates, and, finally, the owners of fiefs of a certain value. Such diets were common throughout Germany, so early as the latter half of the thirteenth century. At a somewhat later period, the deputies of the more important towns were admitted as members, but their influence was always extremely limited.

During the first two centuries of their existence, the German diets often found it very difficult to seize the power which they felt themselves competent to claim. In several states, the monarch had sufficient private property for the purposes of government, so that his nobles had no hold upon him by refusing him supplies. Still, wherever the active assistance of his subjects was indispensable, the sovereign, however indisposed to have recourse to it, was compelled to receive the advice, and entreat the cooperation, of their chiefs. The power of the nobility increased

* It is worthy of remark, as characteristic of the ancient position of the German nobility, that these officials performed the duties of their office by proxy, and only appeared at court, themselves, on legislative occasions.

considerably in the fifteenth century, when expensive wars and more extravagant habits reduced the prince to the necessity of sacrificing a part of his independence, and of conceding privileges prejudicial to his supremacy, for the purpose of obtaining ampler supplies. Nevertheless, he usually clung to power with the greatest tenacity. To avert its loss, he often mortgaged all his possessions, and taxed to the utmost the peasants who were under his immediate control.

On such occasions the nobles were wont to keep aloof, in anticipation of the moment, when their sovereign would be obliged, after having exhausted all his private resources, to lend an unwilling ear to their exorbitant demands. When this critical juncture had arrived, they assembled to receive his propositions. Of these diets, the temporal nobles formed always the majority; there were sometimes no prelates, and generally no deputies of towns. They seldom absolutely refused to submit to the taxation which their sovereign proposed, but their compliance was never granted without conditions advantageous to themselves. Generally speaking, he rewarded any alacrity they might display in relieving his wants, by a corresponding liberality in satisfying their prayers. The compliance of the nobles, however, only affected their serfs. The ancient privileges of their order exempted them from taxation, and military aid was all the service which they were bound to render to the chief of the state.

The respective German diets were in possession of documents, containing grants and confirmations of privileges, which they had wrung from their sovereigns on various occasions. These rights and privileges were various in different states. But the following had been obtained by the nobles in nearly all:—1st, That no tax whatever could be imposed without their consent; 2nd, that their assent was necessary to declarations both of war and peace; 3rd, that they were to be consulted on all divisions and changes of territory; 4th, that they were to be left uncontrolled in the administration of their own domains; 5th, that they were entitled to superintend the receipt and expenditure of the public money; 6th, that they were to be allowed to mediate between their own

and foreign princes; 7th, that they could assemble at their own discretion for the purpose of deliberation; and, 8thly, that they were legally entitled to oppose any infraction of their rights on the part of the sovereign.

The earliest notice of German diets occurs in the history of Bavaria. They existed, also, at a very remote period in Austria and Styria. As early as the tenth century, we find *comitia* or *placita* in these states, which were constituted by the officers of government and by the nobles (*proceres* and *priores*). In the north of Germany, this institution is of later date. The relation which we have described as existing in the different states between the nobles and their sovereign, lasted, as we have stated above, till the peace of Westphalia, about which time it began to merge in one of an opposite character. Instead of being, as formerly, opposed to the monarch, the nobles now became his principal support; they sought and effected the amalgamation of interests, which had previously been essentially distinct. This change, in appearance voluntary on their part, was in fact an inevitable result of circumstances. The frequent wars which had at first tended to confirm their independent position, at last undermined their power. For, in the course of time, standing armies became indispensable, which, though of small force, contributed, in a great measure, to render the sovereign independent of his interested allies. Moreover, they were efficient agents by which he could chastise the insolence of the latter, and reduce individuals amongst them to a speedy sense of their duty.

Then, again, experience, and the march of state-policy, supplied successive monarchs with expedients for breaking up the consolidated power of the feudal chiefs. Intestinal divisions were easily induced and fostered amongst the latter, who were accustomed for the most part to remain isolated in their holds and fastnesses, in which the arts and devices of modern civilization could hardly find a home. Consequently, they were easily divided, and when divided, were more easily subjected to a regular monarchical form of government. To these causes, which were of themselves sufficient to reduce the ancient impor-

tance of the nobility, must be added the general spirit of our modern ages, which is diametrically opposed to the lawless irregularity of the feudal times.

But the attachment to power, which is inherent in human nature, indicated, as it were instinctively, to the German nobles, the only direction in which it could now be obtained. As it was no longer possible to wring it from the sovereign, they now determined to share it with him. Instead of opposing him as formerly, they became his most intimate allies. The throne which they were wont to undermine, they now took upon them to support. Their proffered alliance, the sovereign was neither willing nor able to reject. Indeed, under the new constitution of things, this amicable relation of the noble to the monarch, was as natural as the one which it superseded. Accordingly, it has continued more or less unchanged, and we find it without any essential alteration in the Germany of the present day. But before we enter upon the general condition of the German nobility at present, we shall give a brief outline of the history of the respective nobilities, in the several states into which Germany is divided.

I. The nobility of Austria Proper, *i. e.*, of the archduchy, of Carinthia, Carniola, and the Tyrol, was always one of the most powerful in Germany. This was owing, partly, to the favour with which as a body it was regarded by the house of Hapsburg. Other circumstances conducive to this power, were the frequent divisions of territory which weakened the Austrian sovereigns, and the vicinity of the warlike Hungarians, against whom its aid was so often required. The nobles were not the sole members of the diet in all the Austrian provinces. In the archduchy, deputies of towns were admitted, and in Tyrol, of the peasants, but they were never in sufficient number to affect the predominance of the nobility.

In Austria, the officers of court were hereditary; and the twelve principal ones conferred great importance upon the twelve illustrious families by whom they were held. These latter had exclusive and extraordinany privileges. They were exempted from taxation; in their castles, they could under no pretext be molested, and even in the capital, they were responsible to no law

but their own will. By virtue of the contract of Landau, no article grown on the estates of any noble was taxable, not even when it was brought to the towns to be sold.

The Austrian nobility was divided into two classes, that of lords and that of knights *(der Herren* and *Ritterstand)*. No commoner could by any chance obtain possessions which had been held by a member of either. When the estates of a nobleman had been confiscated, they could only be granted to another who was of the same rank as the former possessor. Whilst the power of the Austrian nobles checked the sway of the sovereign, they in their turn encountered opposition from the subordinate classes of citizens and peasants. The latter broke out into open insurrection against the nobility in 1502, but it terminated in producing a state of subjugation more abject than that which they had attempted to throw off. The citizens were continually striving to assert and maintain a precarious independence, and they generally embraced the cause of the sovereign, from whom they naturally expected protection against the encroachments of the nobility.

The Reformation found many followers amongst the Austrian nobles, and about the year 1532, they felt themselves strong enough to demand the free exercise and tolerance of the reformed religion. This, the Emperor Ferdinand neither dared to grant nor to refuse. The religious meetings of the Protestants were not, however, interrupted, though they were not sanctioned. From Maximilian, the successor of Ferdinand, the diet demanded the banishment of the Jesuits. But to this, the emperor, though not a rigid Catholic, refused to consent; he was afraid of irritating the pope; yet, in order to conciliate the affections of his Protestant nobles, he tolerated the public profession of the Protestant faith.

After him, Rudolf II., who had been educated in Spain, adopted every means to prevent the spread of the reformed doctrines, and by this policy, irritated the peasants to insurrection (1591), and excited the opposition of the nobles, who, allured by the promises of the emperor's brother, Matthias, leagued themselves with him to dethrone Rudolf. After they had attained

their object, Matthias refused to fulfil his promises; but they joined their forces to those of the Hungarian Protestants, and quickly compelled him to desist from the execution of his treacherous plans. His natural aversion to Protestantism, for which he had ambitiously simulated an attachment, was of course increased by these unfortunate disputes, and he took every convenient opportunity of manifesting it, and thus alienated the affections of his most powerful subjects. The diet assembled at Linz (1614) refused him all assistance, though he was in imminent danger from the marauding Turks.

Matthias was only sovereign of the archduchy of Austria. His brother, Ferdinand, governed Carinthia, Styria, and Carniola. This prince was an inveterate enemy of the Protestant cause, and he proceeded actually to depopulate those parts of his dominions which were not inhabited by Catholics. Although indulgent to his nobles on other points, he was inexorable on this. Consequently, as his power and resolution rendered opposition futile, those who remained steadfast in their faith were obliged to emigrate, and those who adhered or returned to Catholicism were loaded with favours by their sovereign. They paid no tolls nor taxes, and possessed numerous monopolies and privileges in trade and commerce. Whilst the towns envied their prosperity, the villages groaned under their oppression. The peasants were compelled to deliver up to them their children for menial service, and were not allowed to sell anything except to their feudal chief, to whose generosity, therefore, the price was always left. This state of things caused frequent insurrections of the peasants, which always terminated in their defeat, and left them at last the slaves of the nobility. It was in the archduchy of Austria, that the Protestant nobles were the most numerous and the most powerful. They rebelled in 1620, against Ferdinand II., because he refused to tolerate their faith. With the aid, however, of the duke of Bavaria, he defeated and subdued them. Many of their estates were confiscated and granted to his faithful Catholics, several of whom acquired at this juncture the immense possessions, which render their families remarkable at the present day.

During the Thirty Years' War, the Austrian nobles suffered less from plunder and exaction than those of more northern states. But the number of their serfs was greatly diminished in order to fill the ranks of the Catholic armies. In that time of religious persecution, their genuine attachment to the cause of Rome was often suspected. They were in consequence often subject to vexatious persecutions, and the clergy took advantage of their equivocal position, to increase, at their expense, its riches and power. Towards the latter end of the seventeenth century, the Austrian nobility began to lose its former independence and importance. The grand causes of its decline were the introduction of standing armies, the improvement of military tactics, and the establishment throughout the country of regular tribunals, which superseded the feudal courts of justice. Nevertheless, during the reigns of Leopold I., Joseph I. and Charles VI., they were still possessed of great power, from their numbers and riches, from their holding all the principal offices both of court and state, and thus surrounding, and often guiding, the sovereign. But the diet, which had been wont to oppose the will of the latter, now sank into insignificance. Charles VI. was the last who by an oath confirmed its rights and privileges. The new attitude in which the nobles now found themselves was far from favourable to their improvement. In their former lawless independence, each had sought to distinguish himself in some rude way, and was ranked accordingly; there had been room for emulation, and for the display both of mental and physical superiority. But now that the body had lost its independence, and found its interest in assiduous subserviency, individual distinction was no longer possible. Birth and precedence became the only titles to promotion. Mental cultivation was neglected, because it brought with it no external advantages, and the morals of the nobles received the same impress of subserviency which their general condition had undergone. We no longer find them the hardy champions of liberty of conscience, preferring destitution to a dishonourable prosperity. In ceasing to respect themselves, they lost also the respect of others. When Maria Theresa ascended the throne in 1740, she neither deigned to receive their homage, nor to confirm their privileges, not that

she was indisposed to protect them, but that she considered them, as a body, unworthy of important notice. During her reign the diet was in abeyance, and in its place existed a committee, composed of five prelates, five lords, and five knights, who, on account of their limited number, never dared to incur the displeasure, by opposing the will, of the empress. Her nobility were no longer exempt from taxation, and lost many of the privileges which they had formerly exercised to the prejudice of the inferior classes. But her son and successor, the celebrated Joseph II., was the great reformer of the Austrian nobility. He left scarcely any of its exclusive rights and privileges untouched; he added to its burden of taxation, liberated the serfs, protected the peasant against encroachment and oppression, and administered impartial justice. Capacity, and not rank alone, became the title to promotion. These alterations, however they might affect individuals, infused fresh life into the body at large, and were finally productive of the most beneficial effects.

II. The relation which existed in Bavaria during the middle ages between noble and sovereign was of a singular nature. The former had numerous and very important privileges, but had reason to complain of their systematic infraction by the latter. In the fourteenth century we find the nobles accusing their monarch of conferring court-dignities on foreigners, of chicanery towards his own nobility, to whom he was difficult of access, and of depriving them of their ancient rights of hunting. They specify instances, in which members of their body had been seized and carried off by night, and their daughters forcibly married to foreigners*. The measures taken by the monarch to limit the power of his nobles mainly owed their success to the divisions among the latter, between the two classes of whom, the lords and the knights, the greatest enmity and jealousy prevailed, Two-thirds of the lords (*Herren*), and only one-third of the inferior nobles, were eligible to the diet. Each of these classes was perpetually engaged in combating the ambition of the other, and the consequence was, that, till a comparatively recent period, they were

* It was not till 1517 that the inferior Bavarian nobles were authorized by the nobles to give their daughters in marriage to those whom they thought fit,

easily kept in check by the sovereign. But divisions of territory which took place in the fifteenth century, encouraged them to postpone for a period their private quarrels to the common pursuit of power. They now united and presented a formidable front to their royal antagonists, from whom they proceeded to demand that all counsellors and officials should be chosen from their body, and that all the privileges which they had ever usurped should be confirmed. But the members of the ruling family united themselves also, and thus the nobles were obliged to content themselves with a confirmation of their unquestioned privileges, and with the advantages which they were accustomed to take of the embarrassments into which numerous wars and expensive courts necessarily led their rulers. They imposed taxes on the peasant at their own discretion, and it was generally in vain that their monarch attempted to interfere in favour of the latter.

William IV. was the first Bavarian prince who, at the head of a mercenary army, victoriously repelled the attacks which the nobles were in the constant habit of making on their sovereign. But the expensive court of his son Albert V. again rendered him dependant on the diet, and if it had not been for the alliance and vicinity of his son-in-law, the Emperor Ferdinand, he would have become its subject instead of its sovereign. As it was, he was obliged to make to them considerable concessions, and amongst others, that of religious toleration. During the latter years of his life, this prince became a mere tool of the Jesuits, whose astute leaders for a long period held the reins of government in Bavaria, and regulated the public expenditure, of course to the advantage of their own body, notwithstanding the frequent opposition and continual discontent of the nobility. The simple hardihood of the latter was no match for the crafty policy of the priests, who braved their open opposition, baffled their secret conspiracies, and reduced them indeed to a state of insignificance from which they did not emerge for several generations. Instead of being bold and enterprising as formerly, they became inert and apathetic. When Maximilian I., a prince of talent and ardour, ascended the throne, in 1597, he was obliged to declare them unequal to the command of troops, or to the duties of civil offices, and to confer both upon

foreigners. Of course they complained bitterly of this preference, but his ready answer was, that the cause of complaint should be removed, as soon as they could supply him with individuals competent to direct or govern. The only privilege which the Bavarian nobility preserved intact at this epoch was its freedom from taxation, and so unimportant was it become as an element of the government, that, from 1512 to 1570 no diet whatever was convoked. During the Thirty Years' War, its possessions suffered immensely from the plundering armies. In 1669, the sovereign, burdened with debts, threw a great part of them upon the shoulders of the nobility, which now presented a melancholy spectacle. The majority of its members were impoverished and without credit, uneducated and without prospect of advancement or promotion. In order to preserve the institution from utter ruin, the prince-elector introduced in 1672 the law of primogeniture. But the nobles continued to suffer during the whole of the eighteenth century from the ambition of their rulers, which they were too weak and too divided to check, and which brought upon the country more than once the curse of a foreign invasion. With Maximilian Joseph, a better day seemed to dawn, but the favour again extended to the Jesuits continued to prevent the nobles from capacitating themselves for that sphere of operations which their position in the state destined for them.

III. As Suabia and Rhenish Germany were divided in the middle ages, and so far indeed as the last century, into innumerable states, the nobility could never form one compact and formidable body. Moreover, it had here more than elsewhere to fear from insubordination and insurrections of the peasants, and therefore found it often expedient to make common cause with, instead of opposing, the sovereign. The Suabian nobles were miserably impoverished during the Thirty Years' War. Baden and Wurtemberg were both overrun, and repeatedly ravaged by the Spaniards; many nobles emigrated, and those who remained were reduced to actual want. The provisions of the peace of Westphalia were so favourable to monarchical power, that the nobility, had it been disposed, would have found it difficult to play its former independent part. But the force of circumstances had already reduced

it to obscurity, when diplomacy came to exclude it from a share in the government. Thus the north-west of Germany presented, as far as the nobility is concerned, a very different picture from the south-east. In Suabia and on the Rhine generally, no diet dared to refuse supplies to its sovereign, even if they were demanded for purposes of extravagance, and when remonstrance was made, it came only from the deputies of towns. On the whole the Rhenish nobles were quite contented to be subservient to the sovereign, provided that he granted and secured to them certain privileges. They were also devoted to the maintenance of the Romish tenets. When Gebhard, the prince-elector of Cologne, become a convert to the reformed religion, and endeavoured to establish it in his territories, he met with the most violent opposition, and was finally banished by his nobles.

The nobility of Juliers, Cleves, Mark, Berg, and Ravensberg, distinguished itself from its southern neighbours by more warlike propensities. At the peace of Westphalia, it was with great difficulty that its members could be made to desist from frequently resorting to club-law, and from embroiling themselves in bloody feuds on the most frivolous pretexts. In 1521, John III. of Cleves was obliged publicly to execute several of the robber-knights (*Raub-ritter*), notwithstanding that they belonged to some of the highest families in his duchy. In 1590, we find his son and successor, William, continuing the work of reform. He abrogated the supremacy of the feudal courts of justice (*Patrimonial-Gerichte*), and decreed, that, under pain of forfeiting all his rights and privileges, no nobleman should proceed, himself, against his peasants for refusing to work, for cutting down fruit-trees, for mischievous idleness, or for running into debt, but should bring them before a regular court of justice. But it was only a resolute and able sovereign who could enforce these regulations, and the effeminate son of Duke William was totally unequal to the task of keeping a nobility in check, which had been irritated by the measures of his father. On his demanding supplies from the diet for paying off the public debt, only eight thousand dollars were granted to him, and a sum to pay the garrisons of his fortresses was flatly refused.

Moreover, his whole nobility besieged him with complaints. The duchess, more capable than her imbecile husband of causing the sovereign dignity to be respected, was first imprisoned and then strangled. After this the nobles abandoned all reserve, assumed the reins of government, seized and wasted the revenue, and, in order to silence the legitimate menaces of the heirs to the crown, married the unfortunate duke to a princess of Lorraine. The former died in 1609, when the neighbouring powers invaded and divided his territories, and soon reduced the nobles to their former submission.

In the lesser German states, down even to a late period, feuds were not at all uncommon between the noble and his sovereign. In the sixteenth century, for instance, some members of the noble family of Salder conceived themselves insulted by their liege lord, the bishop of Hildesheim. To revenge themselves, they entered into a league with the dukes of Brunswick and with other noblemen of Hildesheim. The bishop on his part was not behind-hand in forming alliances and preparing for war. The adverse armies met at Soltau (1520), where, after a sanguinary contest, the party of the nobles was completely defeated. A similar but more important feud took place about the same time in the bishopric of Wurzburg. Some noblemen, incited by one of their chiefs, Von Grumbach, murdered the bishop. The cathedral chapter instantly denounced Grumbach to the emperor; but before it could proceed further, he took possession of Wurzburg, made prisoners of all the priests, compelled them to swear that they would revoke their denunciation, and exacted from them a large sum of money. Nevertheless, he was put under the bann of the empire, and, after a protracted defence, finally brought to justice. Singular as it may appear, this marauding chief had managed to enlist several ruling powers in his cause,—amongst others John Frederick, duke of Saxony, who was included in his outlawry, taken prisoner at his defeat, and carried to Vienna, where he was exposed in a straw hat to the scorn of the public, and where he died after a confinement of eight and twenty years.

IV. The nobles of Brunswick and Luneburg were amongst the most restless and unruly in Germany. The numerous wars in

these states, the repeated divisions of territory, and the expense consequent on the maintenance of numerous courts, weakened the sovereigns at the same time that they rendered them dependant on their nobles for supplies. Henry and Henry Julius were the first who, by introducing the law of primogeniture, which, however, they were far from establishing, attempted to reform the constitution of the nobility. The former of these princes founded a regular system of justice, the latter equalized taxation. But they purchased, as it were, these improvements by conceding to the nobles privileges and monopolies which they enjoyed to the prejudice of the inferior classes.

The accession of the family of Luneburg to the throne of Great Britain was favourable to the power and pretensions of the Hanoverian nobility. The government was invested in a ministry which was chosen exclusively from this body. Since that time more particularly, the Hanoverian nobles have been celebrated in Germany for their lofty deportment and attachment to their order. And as they have had the government for the most part in their own hands, they have maintained the advantageous position which the nobilities of other German states have gradually been obliged to surrender. The historian must record to their credit, that they have been distinguished of late years for talents both civil and military, and that their body has rendered great services to their country.

V. Before the house of Zollern acceded to the throne of Brandenburg, the nobility was quite lawless and independent. It had got possession of the sovereign's domains and of the public revenue, and regarded the prince merely as the first nobleman of the country, without considering itself at all bound to obey him. Indeed it only acted in conjunction with him, when his plans were compatible with its interest. The first princes of the house of Zollern were engaged in a continual contest with the nobles in order to maintain their supremacy, and to recover the domains of which their predecessors had been deprived. In the sixteenth century, John Cicero was obliged to have recourse to an alliance with his commoners in order more effectually to combat his nobility. With their aid he awed the whole body, punished the robber-

knights, and destroyed fifteen of their castles. But though he, in some measure, prevented their manifestation, he could not totally eradicate their plundering propensities. During the reign of his successor, Joachim, some of the noblemen who filled offices at court amused themselves with highway robbery during the night. But the prince, far from tolerating these disgraceful proceedings, prosecuted the offenders inexorably, and when his favourite, Von Lindenburg, was found to have been guilty of the prevailing crime, he caused even him to be executed. The nobles were extremely irritated by this severity, and one of them, Von Otterstaedt, had the audacity to write over the door of the prince's bedchamber, "Joachim, take care of yourself, for if you fall into our hands we will hang you." He even went so far as to assemble a band of knights, and watch for an opportunity of carrying his menace into execution. But the prince, warned of the plot, took measures to frustrate it; he arrested the chief, caused him to be hanged and quartered, and his head to be exposed over the gate of the town. The wild licentiousness of the nobility now began to yield to the influence of civilization. Impartial justice was administered by the government, public instruction encouraged, and the promulgation of Lutheran doctrines was of the greatest benefit to the morals of the country. The nobility began to assume the form of an institution of the country, and under George John, the grandson of Joachim, it took upon itself without reluctance to pay a third of the public debt. Still, so long as they had means of opposition within reach, the nobles were not untrue to their pristine character of insubordination. They instinctively took advantage of any weakness or embarrassment of the sovereign to press their former claims. We find Duke Albert the First complaining to his diet, that he had not a florin a day for pocket-money. His youthful successor, Albert Frederick, who came to the throne in 1568, having manifested the intention of curbing the insolence of his nobles, they harassed and tormented him to such a degree that he became insane, and as they allowed him no medical relief, he remained so to the end of his life (1618). In this cruel conspiracy, the spiritual and temporal nobles were equally guilty.

During the Thirty Years' War, the nobility was the only class which managed to escape overwhelming misfortune. The peasants were impoverished, the towns sacked, and the sovereign, George William, reduced to utter insignificance. Such was the state of things two or three centuries ago in Germany, that unless a prince had courage enough to conquer, and talents to maintain a dignified position, the circumstances in which he was placed were so inimical to the establishment of monarchical power, that the first difficulty which presented itself was often sufficient to involve him in ruin.

The lawless excesses of the Prussian nobles continued to prevail more or less till the accession to the throne, in 1640, of the celebrated elector, Frederick William the Great. This prince sought an appropriate remedy for the public ills in a standing army. He combated with the greatest vigour and perseverance the open and secret antipathy of his nobility. He caused a Prussian nobleman who was intriguing against him at Warsaw to be arrested, and brought home to be executed, though this was contrary to the law of nations. At the head of a well-disciplined force, he paid very little attention to the remonstrances and objections with which the diet met his demands for supplies. At last he imposed taxes without demanding its consent, abolished the freedom from taxation which the nobles had hitherto enjoyed, gave the peasant legal protection against their oppression and caprice, and abrogated such of their privileges as were incompatible with good government. Opposition was useless against the courageous head of a victorious army, and a prince respected for his talents by all the cabinets of Europe. Thus we find the old state of things completely reversed, and a nobility which but a few years before had insulted with impunity the sovereign power, now submissively subject to the slightest manifestations of its will. A radical change took place in the character of the body; and during the succeeding reign of Frederick I., of whose weakness they might have taken advantage, and whose extravagance was alone sufficient to irritate them, they no longer showed a desire of having recourse to their ancient schemes of opposition.

During the reigns of Frederick I., and of his successor, Frederick the Great, the circumstances in which the Prussian nobles were placed were very peculiar. The former prince had no court; he lived like a private nobleman, and was surrounded only by the officers of his army. The court of Frederick the Great was filled with foreigners, and was modelled in every respect after that of the French. Both princes were autocrats in every sense of the word, and in conferring the dignities of state, or offices of government, they neither of them listened to any foreign suggestion. And though their nobles found readier access to place, they were held more responsible than the untitled citizen. Rank alone was with these princes no title to promotion, and negligence or incapacity brought with them a summary dismissal. The nobles were no longer permitted to be guilty of capricious injustice towards the inferior classes. As they were not exempt from taxation, and as their estates were far from fertile, and but few of them entailed, none of the families amongst them could boast of very great riches, and many were comparatively poor. Thus, to preserve an elevated position, they were forced to seek distinction in the civil or military service of the state. These were amongst the causes which earned for modern Prussia a fair name amongst European nations. The nobles manifested in a new form their ancient chivalry, in the campaigns of Frederick against the Swedes and the Turks, on the Rhine and in Poland. With a slender pay, they found glory a sufficient recompense. Thus during the whole of the eighteenth century, the Prussian nobles remained free from effeminate vices. With them the simpler virtues, and the dignity which springs from the consciousness of having performed honourable duties, supplied the place of elegance of manners and of the accomplishments which only flourish in the bosom of a luxurious peace.

Having thus given an historical sketch of the respective nobilities in the principal German states, we shall now continue the general picture, and proceed to an account of its present condition. We have already related that its fortunes were greatly changed about the period of the peace of Westphalia, when standing armies were introduced, and German governments verged towards a

purer monarchy. At this time, the diets in some states, as in the Palatinate, ceased to exist, and in others, for instance in Austria, Bavaria, and Brandenburg, lost all influence in the government. They remained most powerful in Saxony, Brunswick, Mecklenburg, and Hesse. Besides the monarchical tendency of the Westphalian peace, other circumstances coincided to change the feudal independence of the nobles into courtly submission. In the seventeenth, and in the early part of the eighteenth century, several princes mounted foreign thrones, and found soldiers abroad to quell any insubordination at home. The example of Louis XIV. was not without effect; the German courts began to assume the ceremonious form, and the nobles who shone in them to regard with contempt those of their order who preferred privacy to splendour. At a later period, the contrast between the nobility at court and the nobility in the country (*der Hof und der Landadel*), became very striking.

Very shortly after the peace of Westphalia, the French began to exercise a baneful influence on the manners and morals of the German nobility. Under Louis XIV. this contagion was at its height. He was the most powerful monarch in Europe.—his court was the most brilliant,—his policy the most refined,—his government was esteemed the wisest,—and he himself was allowed to be the most perfect gentleman of his time. Most of the German princes visited and were enchanted by the court of Versailles; they took it for their model; and the French language, French morals and manners, were introduced at almost all the courts beyond the Rhine. No nobleman was accomplished, or could reckon on fortune at court, who could not speak French, and who could not imitate the dress and tone of France. But the country nobles remained uninfluenced by this social revolution. They preserved their rough exterior, maintained their ancient reputation for uprightness and simplicity, were perhaps a little too proud of their rank, and too fond of making their inferiors feel their elevation, but they were, at all events, free from the vices which accompany luxury and dissipation.

Those, also, of the nobles who entered upon a military career were preserved from the influence of foreign effeminacy. They

were perhaps not celebrated for an attachment to the severer virtues, but the discipline which the execution of their duty involved, and the sense of honour which their profession was calculated to call forth and encourage, distinguished them advantageously from the nobility at court. Fortunately for Germany, the Gallomania was not of long duration. Indeed it was easy to foresee, that, however prevalent French forms and the French language might become, the morality of the Germans was too deeply interwoven with their national character, to afford a permanent hold to French example. During the latter half of the eighteenth century, it began to die away even at the courts which had been most zealous in encouraging it. It was banished from Dresden by Frederick Augustus. In Baden, Brunswick, Wolfenbuttel, and in several other states, princes ascended the throne whose personal character was alone sufficient to introduce an effectual reform. At this period, too, the nationality of the Germans seemed to awake as from an unhealthy slumber. The long years of lethargy and slothful dependance were forgotten, and the nation suddenly manifested all the signs of reviving youth. A new literature was created, and science was cultivated in a new spirit. To these changes, the nobility was no stranger; but while it reaped its share of the general advantages, it was exposed to peculiar losses. The spirit of the time was inimical to the privileges to which it was naturally attached. As no popular revolutions had yet rendered the governments cautious, the plebeians were allowed to attack the aristocracy with a boldness which would not now be tolerated. Their principal grounds of accusation were, that the nobility alone was eligible to civil and military posts, that it was still in the exclusive possession of monopolies, and that the services which it imposed on the peasant were incompatible with humanity, and much less with justice. These allegations, and the deductions which were drawn from them, the nobility met with either indifference or contempt; though here and there individuals were found who replied to the charges with the same spirit in which they were made. This polemical relation could not but increase the mistrust which had already existed between these

two classes of society. Such was the state of feeling at the breaking out of the French revolution.

The first measures of the democratic party in France were very generally applauded in Germany. The public mind had been prepared for them by the termination of the American war. But the sympathy of the two neighbouring nations was of short duration. The horrors which were perpetrated in France produced the greatest indignation in Germany, and changed the prospects of the country. No one dared to hope for improvement in his own constitution, when an attempt to attain it elsewhere had just been productive of such signal misfortunes. The invectives and complaints which had lately been regarded as of little importance, were now denounced as treasonable practices. The sovereign became convinced that the nobles were the natural defenders of the throne, and would hear of no accusation against them. Thus they not only maintained their ancient position, but fancied that they had secured it from attack; but the sequel deceived the hopes which they fondly entertained. The French invasion of Germany precipitated them into an abyss of unparalleled misfortunes. The nobility on the left bank of the Rhine became subject to France, and lost at once all its privileges. The provisions of the peace of Luneville abolished the diets in all the states which it concerned. The members of the Rhenish confederacy were also empowered to abolish at pleasure the privileges of the nobility. Many availed themselves of the right, and only the king of Saxony and the dukes of Mecklenburg left their diets invested with their former functions, and the principal privileges of their nobilities untouched. Except in Austria, the religious endowments, of which the revenues had been enjoyed by the sons of noble families, were confiscated. In those states in which the *Code Napoleon* was introduced, the nobility lost its personal privileges, and became even liable to conscription. In Austria alone of all the German states, it escaped a share of the general misfortune.

The unhappy termination of the war of 1806 brought about a complete change of Prussian policy. The government was obliged to strain every nerve to preserve itself from utter ruin.

In order to infuse an active spirit into the people, servitude (*Erbunterthänigkeit*) was abolished, the plebeian was allowed to purchase the estates of noblemen, the nobility was declared liable to conscription, and a system of army-promotion was introduced which excluded the pretensions of birth in the choice of a candidate.

Thus, in the majority of the German states, the nobility had lost by degrees the greater part of its privileges, when the defeat of the French in 1814, gave Europe reason to anticipate a permanent peace. At this happy epoch, the nobility expected perhaps to recover its former importance. But experience has shown that this institution, which in the middle ages was the predominant element of society, is not likely in Germany to regain its ascendancy. The absolute monarch, supported by his army, and beloved by his people, was no longer willing to tolerate an aristocracy in share of his government. He was disposed to confer on it his favours, but not to divide with it the prerogatives of a ruler.

The middle classes of society had risen into new importance, and were naturally inclined to look with a jealous eye on the pretensions of birth. Education was become more universal, and riches were no longer in the hands of the nobles alone. The peasant could not be driven again into servitude, nor the commoner excluded from civil and military posts, nor deprived of estates of which he had obtained possession by legal means. To institute new sinecures or to revive old ones, could neither in modesty be demanded, nor in reason justified. But though the German nobility could by no possibility arrive at its former power and importance, the congress of Vienna secured to it all the privileges which it could exercise without prejudice to the other classes of society, and without infringing upon the prerogatives of the sovereign.

The present nobility of Germany consists of the mediatised princes (*die ehemaligen unmittelbaren Reichstände*) and the mediatised knights (*die ehemalige Reichsritterschaft*), as well as of the ancient nobles.

The mediatised princes are the highest, and rank near the sovereign powers. The control which they are allowed to exercise over

their domains, and those inhabiting them, is as complete as is consistent with the good government of the state in which their possessions are situated. They are free to reside in whatever part of Germany they please, and also to enter into foreign service. They are only amenable to a high court of justice, and are not liable to conscription, but they are still subject to the general jurisdiction of the country. In unimportant affairs, they administer justice on their own domains, regulate the local police, superintend the woods and forests, possess the right of church-presentation, and preside over the department of public instruction. Their decisions, however, are not allowed to contradict the general laws of the country. Should these rights not be respected by their sovereigns, they are empowered to appeal to the German diet at Frankfort, which has conferred upon them, since the congress of Vienna, several new honours. The titles are continued to them which they bore when independent; and they and their families are prayed for, in the church service, immediately after the sovereign. On their decease, the bells are tolled for eight days, in all the churches on their domains. For all offences against the state, excepting military insubordination, they can only be tried by their peers. In the government of their domains, too, they have lately been rendered more independent of their sovereigns, but they are still bound to proceed consistently with the spirit of the laws of their respective countries.

The mediatised knights, who were independent before the dissolution of the German empire, and who only differed from the princes above-mentioned, by their not having a voice in the imperial diet, now enjoy the same privileges as the latter, but in a less degree.

The ordinary nobility in the different German states, is subjected to the respective sovereign powers. In no two countries is its position the same. It has almost everywhere lost its exemption from taxation, and its remaining privileges are rather forms than solid advantages. In the constitutional states, however, it takes part in the government as a legislative chamber, and in several it still continues to administer justice in minor affairs on its own domains, and to exercise the right of church-presentation.

On the whole, however, its position is rather to be ascribed to the respect which it inspires, than to the privileges to which it is legally entitled.

The king of Prussia, and, I believe, some other German potentates, now require an university education, and certain preliminary tests from all candidates for office; this circumstance alone, will probably tend to elevate the character of the German nobility, because they will be compelled to undergo a regular educational discipline, and to sustain competition; but they have also a still more difficult trial to endure in Prussia, in a struggle against increasing poverty.

The number of noble individuals in Austria was estimated by Lichtenstern at 475,000. But Hassel believes that this calculation falls far short of the truth. In 1785, the nobility of Hungary alone were estimated at 162,495; and in 1816, the male nobles of Milan were reckoned at 3,859. The number of nobles in Prussia was computed by Hassel, in 1822, at about 200,000. Spain has been estimated to possess the most numerous nobility; Poland, probably, is at least equal in this respect; Austria and Prussia follow, then Russia, then France, next Sweden, and England stands, perhaps, last; Italy is less known.

CHAPTER V.

BIOGRAPHICAL AND CRITICAL VIEW OF MODERN GERMAN LITERATURE.

Modern German Literature, from the time of Gottsched to the era of Goethe and Schiller. Gottsched, Hagedorn, and Haller. Bodmer and Breitinger. J. E. Schlegel, Gellert. Klopstock's early labours. First productions of Wieland, Sulzer, Gleim, Uzkleist, Ramler, Gesser. The school of Berlin—Lessing, Mendelsohn, and Nicolai. Engel, Winkelman. Works of Klopstock, of Lessing, and of Wieland, Voss, Herder, Bürger, Goethe, Schiller.

THE early literature of Germany does not possess the same interest for the general reader, nor for the antiquarian, which is found so abundantly in the cotemporary writings of England, France and Italy. The early literature of Germany did not represent the national mind, nor did it tend much to enlighten nor to move it. It principally consists in treatises, more or less elaborate, on matters of theology, jurisprudence, natural history, physics, and medicine, with no small sprinkling of alchemy, astrology, and metaphysics. These were almost all written in Latin, which appears to have been almost a second tongue, used familiarly in conversation, and still more familiarly in composition. Thousands of bulky folios, and tens of thousands of slender theses and dissertations, still occupy the shelves of the German libraries, but are seldom removed from their place of repose. When we commence the literature of Germany at its so-called modern period, we, in fact, exhibit all that is a subject of inquiry, or a source of gratification, among ordinary readers.

The modern literature of Germany may be said to commence with Gottsched, who was born in the year 1700, and who died in 1766. He was educated at Königsberg, where he took the degree of Master of Philosophy, in 1723. He was shortly afterwards obliged to quit Prussia, where his stature exposed him to the risk

of being forced to enter the ranks of the king of Prussia's giant-grenadiers. He took refuge at Leipsic, and was elected professor at the university there, in the year 1730. Gottsched claimed the character of an universal genius, which he was far from being able to support. He attempted to play at once, the philosopher, the grammarian, the critic, and the poet. But he survived his own fame, and is now consigned to a degree of oblivion which he certainly does not deserve. In estimating his services as an author, it must be remembered that he had all possible disadvantages to contend with; his language was only just emerging from barbarism; he had no national models to mould or guide him; and the age in which he lived, showed no signs of vigorous life. It was a period of transition, of which the peculiarity is a want of character. He introduced a more cultivated style, attacked pedantic extremes, and excited useful controversy. But he did not occupy himself with style and form exclusively; he may be said to have founded the periodical literature; he encouraged numerous young authors, and placed the learned world on a better footing with the booksellers. With the assistance of a number of scholars, whom he had gradually gathered around him, he published a translation of Bayle, whose work, from its free and novel cast, produced a great sensation in Germany. Though a grave Professor, he did not disdain to interfere with the theatre, and his criticism succeeded in driving away the Merry-Andrew (*Hanswurst*) from the stage. A Leipsic lady assisted his reforming career by the introduction of feeble translations from the French. The influence of the pseudo-classic rules of France on the German drama lasted till the criticism of Lessing demolished it at a blow, and rushed unfortunately to an opposite extreme. The period of Gottsched's glory was between the twentieth and fortieth years of the last century. At that time a host of scholars, all living at Leipsic, surrounded him like a family. His lady was infected with the mania of the day, and translated the French tragedians, whilst he imitated the Cato of Addison. In these palmy days, our Professor assumed a proportionate degree of presumption and conceit. He legislated for the literary world with a dictatorial air; but into the nature of man, where alone

the laws of criticism are seated, he never deigned to cast a glance. Aristotle he misunderstood, and his imitation of the French was clumsy and imperfect. From 1756 to 1763, Germany was disturbed by the Seven Years' War, during which Frederic the Great frequently occupied Saxony, and held his court at Leipsic. Although this sovereign was more a Frenchman than a German, still he condescended sometimes to notice his own language, and he encouraged Gottsched, who was called to court to represent German literature. Here, as an avowed admirer of the French, Gottsched found himself, of course, at home, and was delighted to support the predilections of the king by his learned authority. He was rewarded by some French verses of the latter, in which he was entitled the Swan of Saxony. Goethe has left us a highly amusing account of the first visit which he paid to Gottsched. By mistake he was ushered into the dressing-room of the Professor, who, as he entered, clapped on his wig with great dispatch, then boxed his blundering valet's ear with one hand, and received his guest with the other.

Gottsched's system of criticism is particularly open to the charge of superficiality and weakness. The relation in which he stood to his more immediate followers, most of whom were his opponents, will lead us again to this subject.

Principal Works of Gottsched. Critical System of Poetry (1730). Poems (1736). German Grammar (1748). German Theatre (1750).

Hagedorn and Haller were eight years younger than Gottsched; they were both born in 1708. They died, the former in 1754, the latter in 1777. Hagedorn was a native of Holstein, and spent the greater part of his life at Hamburg. In this part of the country, at that period, Low German *(Platt Deutsch)* was in every mouth—it was the language of ordinary, if not of cultivated conversation. Haller was born in Switzerland, at Berne, a town more French than German, and he had to learn German with a grammar and dictionary. In classing, then, these poets together, we only refer to some similar points in the character and tendency of their works. They commenced an indirect opposition to Gottsched, and as they overthrew him,

without expressly aiming at him, they rendered his overthrow the more complete. The criticism of the Leipsic Professor was entirely negative. He had prescribed only sobriety of expression, and such poetical enthusiasm as could help itself just as well with prose as verse. Haller introduced the freedom of English literature into Germany. He, at first, took Pope for his model; but if he excels him in depth and solidity, he is his inferior in point of style. Haller deserted poetry for physiology at thirty, and would fain apologize afterwards, for having devoted so much time to the Muses. Poetry, he complains, is a frivolous occupation, and as for his effusions, one was written on a journey, another during his recovery from an illness, and the rest on similar occasions. His poem, "The Alps," however, must receive justice from the critic, though it may have been rejected by its author; it contains touches of nature worthy of a master-hand. Haller's satires are written in a terse and manly style. His moral essays are a species of one-sided declamation, where the orator launches without a compass, and sails through innumerable topics without arriving at any result. Some of Pope's works are of the same nature, and his "Essay on Man" has no claim to its title; but there is a force and vigour in the style of Haller, which counterbalances all his faults. It is needless to say that these sins were loudly decried by Gottsched, and that, at the news of Haller's rising fame, all Leipsic was in an uproar. It is a common prejudice, that a man cannot distinguish himself eminently in two departments. The philosophic reputation of Haller has injured his fame as a poet. To his scientific eminence, he owed his professorship at the university of Gottingen. Here he was an active contributor to *Der Gelehrte Anzeiger*, at that time the most famous periodical in Germany. During his residence at Gottingen, he wrote a political romance (*Usong*) clothed in Asiatic form, which has since been consigned to oblivion. Haller was a man of a serious and somewhat gloomy temperament, which betrayed him, at last, into a state of morbid melancholy. His religious faith was neither cheerful nor consolatory, and for some years preceding his decease, he required the

constant attention of a spiritual adviser. In estimating the comparative worth of Haller's works, we must never forget that he was without German models. He had the classics certainly, but their sphere is too remote for the imitation of a genial poet, who feels the necessity of giving expression to life as he breathes and feels it. The light of classic literature is pure and beautiful, but cold and dead. The best of Haller's works is undoubtedly "The Alps," in which he manifests a close intimacy with nature, and great depth of thought. The *Frühling* of Kleist, and the "Seasons" of Thomson, of which the former is an imitation, are the best monitors of the necessity which exists for giving a rigorous form to descriptive poetry. Some of Haller's moral poems seek to reconcile the old quarrel between free-inquiry and faith. One of the most remarkable amongst them is a comparison between the fortitude in suffering of a Christian missionary and of an American warrior. Haller wrote odes, but in imitation of the French—of Baptiste Rousseau, for instance. These compositions instead of being poetical, are a collection of rhetorical rhymes. The criticism of our poet-philosopher is not of much value; for to criticise a literature which is without models is to thresh empty straw.

Principal Works of Haller. Poems (1732). The Alps (1748). Usong (1771). Alfred (1773).

Hagedorn, who, though he lived in such different circumstances, is generally classed with Haller, was a man of a very different temperament. He was sociable and extremely cheerful, and his aim was the moderate one of avoiding extravagance, and of attaining perfection in a very minor department. He possessed but little invention, and his way of life was not calculated to supply this deficiency. His reading was such as no one now would pride himself on, being composed principally of second and third-rate English and French poets. His favourite models were Horace, Boileau and Samuel Johnson. Like Boileau, he endeavoured to adapt the Horatian satire to modern life. In his imitation of the Journey to Brundusium, a worthy Hamburg cit, Herr Lisco, figures as Mæcenas, and the Marien-gasse as the Via Sacra. He attempted to write epigrams, but his

pen was too mild, and the objects at which they were directed too indefinite to ensure their success. A man may as well shoot into the air and take his chance of hitting anything, as write an epigram with a general aim. The spirit of personality, as Martial has taught us, is an indispensable requisite. Unfortunately, too, epigrams have become a sort of common property, descending from generation to generation, and their genealogy is often to be distinctly traced. The "Fables" of Hagedorn, in imitation of La Fontaine, improved much on the German standard, and excited further progress. Gellert and Lichtwer took up the subject shortly afterwards, and remained masters of the field, till the "Fables" of Lessing effected as great a revolution in this, as his philosophy accomplished in all other departments of German literature.

Principal Works of Hagedorn. Poetical Essays (1729). Fables and Stories in Verse (1738). The Universal Prayer, in imitation of Pope (1742). On Happiness (1743). The Gossip (1744).

Between the fortieth and fiftieth years of the last century, at which time the fame of Hagedorn was fast superseding that of Gottsched, appeared two opponents of the latter who did not confine themselves to an indirect system of attack. These were Bodmer and Breitinger, who founded what is called the Swiss school of criticism. Bodmer was born at Zurich, 1698, and died there, 1783. He commenced his literary career by publishing a periodical work in 1722. In 1725, he was called to the chair of History in the university of his native town. Breitinger was born at Zurich, 1701, he filled there the University chair of Greek and Hebrew, and died, 1776. These two carried on a paper war with Gottsched, and contributed by their abuse to his downfal, without increasing their own fame. Their great poetical authority was, as usual, Aristotle, whom, from the imperfect study of classical literature at that time, they probably did not understand, or they would have known that, however great was his philosophic acumen, Aristotle had no pretensions to the title of a critic of poetry. The great merit of the Swiss school consisted in the further introduction of English literature to the notice of the

German public. They studied Pope and Addison, whose criticism, though somewhat tame, is still freer than that of the French. But the "Paradise Lost" of Milton was the chief object of their admiration. They had long been on the search for an epic in blank verse, in order to silence the one-sided criticism of Gottsched, who would acknowledge no poetry, unless it were clothed in rhyme. The idea of an epic, in those days, implied supernatural agency, as well as human heroism. The former was designated by the French word, *machinerie*, an unhappy term, derived probably from the machinery by the aid of which the gods of ancient tragedy descended upon the stage. Milton corresponded in every respect to the prevailing definition of an epic poet, and Bodmer translated the majestic verse of Milton into clumsy and tedious German prose.

The Swiss school was devoid of a consistent philosophy, and failed in the qualifications and acquirements essential for the office of general criticism. We must strive hard and long before the point is gained, at which we can survey European literature. Each national poet must be studied in his own home, amongst his countrymen; he is no bird of paradise flying in universal air. Bodmer wrote a bad "Art of Poetry," but then he had no poetry of which to treat. Amongst the popular bards of those days, were Von Besser, master of ceremonies to the king of Prussia; Koenig who wrote a muster-roll of Saxon and Prussian soldiers in rhyme; and Lowenstein, whose tragedies are so long, that in order to sit out their representation one would be compelled to take a meal or two and a night-cap into the theatre.

Principal Works of Bodmer. Translation of Milton (1732). Critical Letters (1746). The Noachide (1762). Principles of the German Language (1768).

Principal Works of Breitinger. Artis Cogitandi Principia (1736). Critical Essay on the Art of Poetry (1740). Orationes Solemnes (1776).

Notwithstanding the exertions of the Swiss school, Leipsic continued, even after the expiration of Gottsched's popularity, to be the metropolis of literary Germany. In the middle of the last century, it was the residence of Gellert and Klopstock, of

Kramer, Rabener, and several others, whom we shall not have space to dilate upon. But somewhat earlier than these, flourished J. E. Schlegel, who was born in 1718, and who died in Denmark, in 1749. He was the first who gave a character to the German theatre, and is, therefore, in his relation to German dramatic literature, especially worthy of notice. He commenced his career by translating some tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides into German rhyme. Though he abandoned the French school of tragedy, he was not quite free from its influence. If his "Herrman" were free from the intrigues which its example rendered essential to the success of a play, and were somewhat bolder in its construction, it would command unreserved admiration; as it is, however, it is superior to the "Herrman" of Klopstock. It is one of the first productions of modern German literature, and well calculated to develop and encourage national feelings. Indeed, it contains so many allusions to freedom and independence, that during the time of the French domination, the theatrical censors would never have allowed it to be performed. In Denmark, Schlegel wrote a comedy, called the "Triumph of Good Women," and prefixed to it a dissertation, in which he attempts to prove that productions of this class should never be written in rhyme. But comedy, the subject of which is drawn from every-day life, may require the assistance of rhyme, to preserve it from falling through the various grades of the lighter drama into a species without elevation and without form. The favourite plays of the æra we are now considering, were of the kind technically called characteristic, in which a character made up of extremes, whose vices might be either moral or mental, was put to all sorts of trials, through five tedious acts. Schlegel brought on the Copenhagen stage, "The Dumb Beauty," a rhymed comedy in one act, which is admirable of its kind. From this author, the influence of French taste on the German drama dates its decline; all subsequent attempts to modify French plays for that stage, have been decided failures. If these productions are of any worth, it lies in their consistency and unity, which are destroyed as soon as they are altered.

Schiller and Goethe have, on this account, failed in their

translations from Racine and Voltaire into German rhymeless verse. For some time after the period of which we are now treating, Shakspeare seems to have been unknown in Germany. Bodmer quotes him under the name of Sasper, and a bibliopolist of those days tells us, that he had heard a great deal about him, but that he had been unable to obtain any of his works.

Principal Works of J. E. Schlegel. Henry the Lion (1742). Orestes and Pylades (1742). Herrman (1746). Comedies (1747).

Gellert was born three years before J. E. Schlegel, and survived him till 1769. His father was a clergyman at Haynichen, near Freiberg, in Saxony. He received the elements of his education at Meissen, and went to study at the University of Leipsic, in 1734. Here he spent the remainder of his life, first as a private tutor, and subsequently as a professor. His first literary arena, was the periodical literature of Leipsic. Gellert is one of those authors, who, by a prudent management of very little talent, earn considerable fame. The public has confounded the man with the poet; and his literary insignificance was forgotten by those who admired the goodness of his heart. Fame, however, seems now determined to vindicate its impartiality, and is consigning poor Gellert to undeserved neglect. His comedies are the weakest of his works; one finishes perusing them, really without knowing what all the five acts have been about. His tales and fables are much too similar; he seems to have confounded the species. The "Letters" of Gellert were received with great applause, and have survived, in general estimation, many of his works. But it is impossible that a book, the interest of which is but local and temporary, should take its stand amongst the classics of a nation.

Principal Works of Gellert. Fables (1746). Moral and Didactic Poems (1754). Miscellaneous Works (1756).

Frederic Gottlieb Klopstock was born in 1724, at the abbey of Quedlinburg, where his father was employed. He was the eldest of ten children. From 1739 to 1745, he was at school at Pforta, near Naumburg; he completed his education at the University of Leipsic. The first years of his fame he spent in

travelling through various parts of Germany. Afterwards, from 1751 to 1771, he resided at Copenhagen, where he was pensioned by the king of Denmark. The latter part of his life was passed at Hamburg, where, in his sixty-seventh year, he contracted a second marriage, and where he died in 1803.

Klopstock came to Leipsic in the year 1746, when he had already commenced his great poem, "The Messiah," and was full plans for its completion. It would be useless to deny, that in some parts of it he has imitated Milton, but on the whole he pursued an original path.

Klopstock had no ability in rhyming; his muse was neither docile nor pliant. On this score, he was at first considerably embarrassed, being far from decided as to what measure he should choose for his verse. He intended, at first, to write in rhymeless Alexandrines—the worst form he could possibly have chosen. Fortunately, he hit upon the hexameter, in which his success was signal and complete. The first cantos of the Messiah were published, 1748, in a periodical which issued from the Leipsic press. The effect which it produced upon the public, cannot be measured, even by the greatest possible sensation which a work can now create.

In our days, politics usurp all attention, and have almost driven literature from the field. It is only during a temporary calm, during an armistice, as it were, of the agitating powers, that we can devote time to quiet, unimpassioned enjoyment. In Klopstock's time, the public had scarcely anything to divert its attention from his remarkable work. It roused all Germany from Leipsic to its circumference, and Bodmer, from the valleys of Switzerland, hailed its author as the morning star of a new time. The old Swiss critic was surrounded by several disciples, whom he was training for the path which Klopstock had so boldly entered. The most noted of these were Wieland, Sulzer, and Gessner. Bodmer was, himself, engaged in turning the Old Testament into a series of epics, of which the principal one has the Flood for its subject. The perusal of these poems always excites the same painful feelings which travelling produces on a rough road in a carriage without springs.

In the year 1750, we find Klopstock a visitor of Bodmer; but, unfortunately, the difference in their characters and years did not allow the same congeniality of society as of poetical principles. But mutual respect and admiration survived personal disappointment. In speaking of the Wieland of this period, we must not confound him with the Wieland who dazzled Germany in the year 1763. They are one person, it is true; but the one person underwent a complete metamorphosis. At this period, he espoused the cause of Plato against that of Epicurus, and wrote a poem to refute the "De rerum Natura," of Lucretius. Besides this, he composed Scriptural epics, in unwieldly verse; as, for instance *Der geprüfte Abraham.* Sulzer was the scholar of Bodmer in poetry, and of Leibnitz in philosophy. Or, rather, the creed which he professed, and which was very popular just at that period, was an amalgamation of all possible systems. Sulzer's book on the fine arts is now almost forgotten; its object is to prove their morality, and their morality is undeniable, but they must not be used expressly for a moral end. As soon as this bias is detected, they lose their beauty and effect.

The works of Gessner, originally a disciple of Bodmer, will be described after noticing another school to which he afterwards belonged.

From Leipsic and Zurich, we are now called to Halle. It was at this university that several poets of congenial natures—Gleim, Uz, Kleist, and Ramler—received their education and commenced their literary career. Gleim held an office under government, and resided, the greater part of his life, at Halberstadt. His first productions were Anacreontic poems; he afterwards wrote others of various descriptions, but he never attained excellence in any department. He was a dilettante, and seems to have had no serious call to appear before the world as a poet. His private character, which was admirable in every respect, has assisted him to a portion of that fame which genius only should reap. As he advanced in years, he received the appellation of Father Gleim, and Halberstadt was visited by youthful poets who flocked thither, like pilgrims, from all parts of Germany. But Gleim, though a faithful friend, was a much too indulgent critic.

This, however, served to maintain his reputation amongst the young and aspiring, and he lived like Nestor, to advise and direct a third generation. So late as the beginning of this century, his voice was heard at intervals. He survived, indeed, the fame of all his productions, except, perhaps, of his "War Songs of a Prussian Grenadier," and these do not owe all their popularity to their poetical merit.

Uz was a great friend of Gleim, and devoted his attention chiefly to the ode. His favourite model was Horace, and he contributed much to the study of the Roman poets. He wrote, also, didactic poems, in which he incorporated the doctrine of optimism lately propounded by Leibnitz. He attacked the school of Klopstock, but the warmth which glowed in some of his own erotic descriptions gave his opponents means of rejoinder which they were far from neglecting. Wieland, of all others, signalized himself in attacking Uz, for crimes of which he was himself doomed to be the perpetrator; the author of "The New Amadis" would, probably, have given something in his latter years to have been able to recal the unchristian zeal with which he had appeared on behalf of decorum. But its fruits were in the hands of the public, and his puritanical effusions were ranged on the same shelf with other productions of his pen, which morality is unable to justify.

Kleist was a young nobleman, and an officer in the Prussian service. He fought in the ranks of Frederick the Great during the Seven Years' War, and was killed at the battle of Kunersdorf. His longing for repose, and the partiality with which he sketched the peace he was never fated to enjoy, betray, in all his works, the soldier-poet. His "Spring" is an imitation of the "Seasons" of Thomson, which is composed of a series of pictures drawn with truth and feeling, but in no definite form, and with no general spirit pervading the whole. He has all the faults, and, it cannot be denied, all the beauties of his model; but poetry is not entirely a descriptive art. The works of Kleist were disfigured by the corrections of Ramler; and it is only lately that they have been published from the original manuscripts. Ramler has the credit of having tamed whatever was original and energetic

in the poetry of his period down to his own standard of correct mediocrity. In his old age he versified the Idylls of Gessner, which had never possessed great merit, but which he deprived of all they had. Gessner, after having been educated in the principles of the Swiss school, came to Berlin about the year 1750, to learn the trade of a bookseller. Disgusted, however, with this occupation, he took to painting, for which nature seems to have intended him. He had received no instruction in the art, and he painted, at first, a number of landscapes with common oil, so that they would not dry. It was his distress on this account, which led him to seek and ask the advice of the Professor of Painting. The talent of Gessner was now soon recognised, and his landscapes have always been very justly praised. Unfortunately, we cannot say as much for his literary publications. His Idylls are landscapes, as far as he could make them such with pen, ink and paper. His characters are like those of Ossian,—speaking spirits and shadows, drawn on a coloured horizon, and sweeping along luxuriant ground. Probably, his reason for not writing in verse was because he could not. But, still, his is not the poetic prose which has been so much cultivated by the French, by Bitaubé, for instance, and by Chateaubriand. It is perfectly simple and natural; but the subject is not one to which these qualities can give much value. He had, probably, Theocritus for his model, whose works, however, he could not read in the original. But it would be a mistake to suppose that he resembles the classic idyllist. The shepherds of Theocritus are not the innocent beings, nor are his shepherdesses so blissfully ignorant, as is generally imagined. In fact, the productions in which they appear are sketches of a state of society which then really existed. It was his successors, and not Theocritus, who forsook reality to paint a golden age. With the "Aminta" of Tasso, and the "Pastor Fido" of Guarini, Gessner appears to have been quite unacquainted. His "Death of Abel," in which he followed the steps of Bodmer and Klopstock, has no claims to originality, and therefore, none to notice.

Between the fortieth and sixtieth years of the last century, a literary school exerted itself with success in improving the style

and construction of German prose. It has happened with Germany, as with many other nations, that its poetry arrived at a considerable degree of perfection, whilst its prose was still quite neglected. We are now about to speak of the works of Lessing and his friends. Gotthold Ephraim Lessing was born in 1729, and died shortly after he had reached his fiftieth year. His birthplace was Kamenz, a little town in Lusatia. At the age of twelve, he was sent to a school at Meissen which enjoyed a great reputation at that period. It was in 1746 that he visited the university of Leipsic, where he became acquainted with numerous literary characters. Here, in a weekly journal, he published his first productions. His subsequent place of residence he very often changed. We find him engaged in literary pursuits alternately at Leipsic, Wittenberg and Berlin; subsequently, he became superintendent of the theatre at Hamburg, and finally, librarian at Wolfenbuttel, where he died, 1781. Lessing is one of those who have been over-praised; he was even esteemed a great poet; but we cannot now concede to him the inspiration of poetical genius. He was endowed with numerous and very different capacities; but his studies were desultory, and he had much more zeal than perseverance. He was restless, paradoxical, and, to use a word which was not born when he lived, but to which he answered exactly, revolutionary. His exertions and acquisitions were immense. He had a perpetual thirst for new discoveries, and for discovering new views of old ones; but his plan of proceeding was fitful and irregular. His whole way of life corresponded to the bias of his mental character; he was, in every sense of the word, eccentric.

At Berlin he was associated with Sulzer, whom we have already noticed, Moses Mendelsohn, and Nicolai. They devoted themselves principally to literary criticism, and their organ was the *Allgemeine Deutsche Bibliotheke*. They had, however, no real universality, which is essentially requisite to true criticism, their views were narrow, and their judgment confined. But their prose was full of life and nerve, widely remote from the dulness of that of the Leipsic school, and from the clumsiness of that of the Swiss. The poetical works of Lessing consist chiefly of songs

and translations. But he could commence no poem without laying down a theory for his own guidance; he was always calling himself to account, and mistrusting his impulses, a habit which affords us sufficient evidence of his want of the innate confidence which characterizes a great mind. He wrote comedies, which now are all—including even *Minna von Barnhelm*—nearly forgotten. He was the author of fables and epigrams, and of new theories on both. His *Dramaturgie* worked a revolution in the theatre. In his tragedies of *Miss Sarah Samson* and of *Emilia Galotti*, his chief object seems to be, to put into practice a theory which he had broached, that the true drama requires the heroic virtues to be domesticized, and not to be propped upon French stilts. At Wolfenbuttel we find him in a new character, invading the region of theology. In the library there, he raked up an old manuscript of sceptical biblical criticism, of which probably its author had been afraid; and he ventured to publish some parts of it. He wished to show, he said, his candour and tolerance. But these professions did not shield him from innumerable attacks. The duke of Brunswick interfered, and Lessing was compelled to be silent; but the chagrin and disappointment consequent on this affair probably contributed to shorten his life. About this time he wrote "Nathan the Wise," a drama, in which his ideas respecting the relations which various religious tenets bear to each other are given to the world. After having been banished from theology, the indefatigable Lessing devoted himself to philosophical speculation; he became a student of Spinoza, and the predilection which he manifested for the system of that philosopher raised another outcry against him. Lessing was a man of enormous learning, but even in his favourite department of the drama, he never arrived at a perfect comprehension of the Greek tragedians.

Principal Works of Lessing. Miss Sarah Samson (1755). Philotas (1759). Minna von Barnhelm (1763). Laocoon (1765). Dramaturgie (1767-8). Emilia Galotti (1772). Nathan the Wise (1779.)

Moses Mendelsohn was born 1729, and died 1786. He was a native of Dessau, where his father was a public notary. He first came to Berlin, his future permanent abode, in 1742, and

he made there the acquaintance of Lessing in 1754. He was born and remained to his death in the Jewish profession, but his character was independent, and his mind free from prejudices. His principal work is his Phædon, of which the object is to demonstrate the immortality of the soul by the aid of modern philosophy. In the latter part of his career, we find him appearing as an opponent of Kant, but this was a part which he was then too old and too weak to play with any effect. The style of Mendelsohn is regular and elegant. His character differed considerably from that of Lessing; he was a mild, calm, benevolent man, and his works, consequently, want the boldness and originality of those of his friend. He assisted in editing the "Letters on Modern Literature," and devoted himself, at last, to theology. Besides Kant, Jacobi roused him also to a public attack. The latter had had a conversation with Lessing shortly before his death, in which he had almost avowed himself a convert to the pantheism of Sponiza. He had published this conversation, and was charged by the Berlin friends of Lessing, and principally by Mendelsohn, with having misrepresented the opinions of the latter. Jacobi replied that he had been the only confidant of Lessing, and that the philosopher had not communicated his opinions to them, because he feared that they would not be able to understand him.

Principal Works of Mendelsohn. Letters on Literature (1761-5). Pope as a Metaphysician [in conjunction with Lessing] (1755). Phædon (1767). Jerusalem (1783). Morning Hours (1785).

Another friend of Lessing, at Berlin, was Engel, who was born in 1741, and who died at the commencement of this century. He was for some time the tutor of the present king of Prussia. Afterwards he was appointed superintendent of the theatre at Berlin, and wrote a book on the Mimic Art*. In this work we find the fruits of Lessing's theory, for Engel, whilst writing on the drama, forgets that a drama ought to be a poem. According to him, close imitation is the actor's only road to perfection: in fact, he recognises only talent, and forgets that such a thing as genius exists.

* Translated by Henry Siddons.

None of the followers of Lessing have rendered themselves more famous than Nicolai, who, however, only adhered to the negative precepts of his master. Many, indeed, of his disciples were only acquainted with the scepticism of Lessing, and, though ostensibly treading in his path, they brought discredit on his system.

Next appears an individual who ran an independent career, as influential and brilliant as it was singular. Winkelman, the son of a shoemaker, was born in 1717, and spent some of the best years of his life as an usher. He first saw the light at Steindall, a town in the Old Mark of Brandenburg, where he received the rudiments of his education. He afterwards passed two years at the University of Halle. Then, for a considerable time, we find him in the most straitened circumstances, burning with a deep love of art, which he was unable to gratify, till he became acquainted, at Dresden, with the pope's nuncio, Archinto, who persuaded him to abjure the Protestant faith, and to try his fortune at Rome. The remainder of his life he spent in Italy, where he wrote most of his works. He was murdered by an Italian, at Trieste, June 8th, 1768. From his earliest youth, Winkelman was filled (if the expression may be allowed) with a prophetic inspiration; he felt that he was born to distinguish himself, without knowing precisely in what department. Fortunately, he became acquainted with Oeser at Dresden, and obtained with his assistance, a thorough knowledge of the treasures of art which that city possesses. He was the first learned man of modern times who breathed the spirit of antiquity. Before his time, the field upon which he entered was encumbered with philologers quarrelling about manuscripts, and antiquarians disputing on the manner in which the Romans tied their shoestrings. These worthies had discussed every possible variety of external form, while neglecting even to mention an internal spirit.

The only individuals, who imbibed a classic spirit from the immortal relics of the old world, were the artists,—the painters, for instance, of the Italian schools. It is easily to be recognized in Michael Angelo, and the works of Raphael may be readily divided into those produced before, and those conceived after he had become acquainted with it.

The great work of Winkelman (which was sent in portions from Italy to Germany) is his "Universal History of Art." The title is a misnomer; it should have run thus,—"The History of Sculpture amongst the Greeks." Winkelman was unacquainted both with architecture and painting. His chief work announced one great truth, but was disfigured by innumerable errors. The extremes into which its author was always running, must be, in a great measure, excused him, when we recollect that his contemporaries combined the greatest ignorance of art with the greatest mannerism in treating of it. Unfortunately, he became, at last, partial and one-sided; considered himself as an Italian, and would acknowledge no genius beyond the Alps. He published a work, "Monumenta Inedita," in his adopted language, in which he seems to have allowed his friendship for Cardinal Albani to have biassed him not a little in his judgment of the works of art in the possession of the latter. But his enthusiasm redeems all his faults, and often clothes his subject in a strain worthy of his classic models. He showed with a master-hand how intimately and inseparably art and poetry are bound together. He formed the old world anew, from the fragments which have come down to us unexplained by each other. He sends the poet as well as the sculptor to Italy, to study the Apollo and the Laocoon of the statuary. He demonstrates that eloquence and music have their birth in the same principle as poetry and art, and that they are to be woven into the same grand whole. But still, we must remember that, though Winkelman felt like a poet, he never thought like a philosopher. He is seldom clear, sometimes unintelligible, and often, even in his better moments, he must be contented with the appellation of an eloquent stammerer.

Principal Works of Winkelman. Reflections on the Imitations of Greek Sculpture and Painting (1756). Remarks on the Architecture of the Ancients (1761). On the Perception of the Beautiful in Works of Art (1763). History of Art* (1764).

It will be necessary now to return analytically on our own

* His great work on the History of Art has not been translated into English, but a French translation may be procured. Fuseli translated into English one of his smaller works.

steps, and to examine more in detail what we have been hitherto viewing collectively. We commence again with Klopstock, and shall consider him first as the poet of "The Messiah,"—the work which occupied the best twenty-five years of his life. Let us anticipate the consideration of it, by a few reflections on the ideas entertained at the commencement of the last century on the nature of the epic. The grand and indispensable duty of the epic poet was held to be the imitation of the ancients—especially of Homer. But in order to imitate, one must first understand; and the critics of those days were quite in the dark as to the essential nature of the Homeric rhapsodies. Recent research has cast a new light upon these everlasting monuments of ancient art. They are to be considered, not so much the work of an individual, as the gradual formation of an age. That which we possess under the name of Homer's epics, is the genuine core of Greek tradition, gradually formed and gradually perfected. No epic poet can be inspired without an enthusiastic belief of the truth of that which he sings, and this was a requisite which modern critics could, till of late years, never discover. Again, supernatural interposition, and the subjection of the human will to the decrees of fate, cannot be subjects of admiration to the Christian world. The morality of our dispensation is opposed to that of the old mythology. The first principle of our religion teaches us the responsibility of a free agent, but the holiest duty of the Greeks was a frequently blind obedience to an arbitrary decree. As they never recognised this distinction, modern epic writers have, for the most part, been guilty of the most palpable blunders. It is unnecessary here to enumerate the number of abortions of this class, which have made their appearance from time to time. The real epics of the modern world have been generally either unknown or neglected; for instance, the traditionary ones of the North (as of Ossian); the old German poems, such as the "Nibelungen Lied;" the Spanish legends, and others.

The nature of Klopstock's poem suggests a comparison with that of Milton, and this must terminate by our acknowledging the superiority of the latter. The epic requires for its subject a

struggle, the result of which, however confidently it may be anticipated, must be for the time uncertain. Satan, the hero of Milton, is undefeated, even at the falling of the curtain, though prophecies and episodes announce to us his approaching downfal. But in Klopstock, the Almighty is the grand agent, and therefore all struggle is impossible, and all show of resistance vain. The acting principle in Milton is an individual and daring will; in Klopstock, an immutable and unswerving fate.

The second part of Klopstock's poem verges too much towards the lyrical, where all active interest ceases. His characters are too definitely divided into good and bad; though Milton avoided this rock somewhat equivocally by adding nobility even to the vice of Satan. Still Klopstock was a great poet, for he founded a new æra. He was full of the dignity of his calling, was inspired by the sublimity of his subject, was a master of description, and a bard who roused his age from indifference to enthusiasm. From the consideration of his great work we pass on to his Odes, which he composed in all periods of his life, and which form, indeed, a kind of autobiography. These compositions have been accused, with justice, of a kind of ostentatious originality, of obscurity for its own sake, and of a multiplicity of recondite allusions beyond all license. The introduction of the Northern mythology, in many of his odes, is productive of a bad effect, and his dramas are rendered still more uninteresting from the same cause. His Scandinavian deities, like his angels in "The Messiah," are but shadows answering to no definite ideas, formerly unknown to the reader, and now when more familiar, uninteresting. His dramas are monotonous productions; the wildness they often affect was foreign to the inspiration of their author; they are only apparently terse, and artificially laconic.

Klopstock encouraged in himself, and excited in others, a vein of overweening Germanism; according to him people may neglect everything foreign, merely because they have not produced it. Another of his peculiarities was, that he looked upon versification as something quite beneath his serious attention; rhyme he held to be barbarous; and when the Nibelungen Lied appeared in a modern edition, he refused to notice it, because it was not in blank

verse. In 1774, Klopstock published his "Learned Republic," of which the style is admirable; but its allegorical form was much too obscure for the multitude, and its tone was too dogmatical and oracular for the learned. Amongst his latest works were his "Grammatical Dialogues," which were neglected more than they deserved, and a "System of Orthography," full of whimsicalities and inapplicable propositions.

Principal Works of Klopstock. First cantos of The Messiah (1748). Termination of the Messiah (1769). Death of Adam, a drama (1757). Dramas (1769-84). Odes (1771). Treatise on German Orthography (1778). Grammatical Dialogues (1794).

To return to Lessing, more particularly to his dramatic career: this he commenced by comedies, which, though they would be, perhaps, flat and tedious to the public of this day, are still of relative and historical importance. One of them, "Minna von Barnhelm," attained unusual popularity, for it was a national picture, and anything national in those days was new, and the public were agreeably surprised to find something contiguous, which they had always imagined to be distant and foreign. In some of these plays, however, there is a sentimentality which is measured, epigrammatic, and too often artificial. One of his first tragedies was "Miss Sarah Samson," one of those touching domestic dramas, then so popular, in which the events are much too exaggerated for the sphere in which they occur. As soon as his name became celebrated in the dramatic world, he received an invitation from the company of players at Hamburg, of whom, the well-known Eckhoff was the manager, to take upon him the literary superintendence of their theatre. A branch of his duty here consisted in the publication of a theatrical journal, *Die Hamburger Dramaturgie*, which has since become a standard book in German literature. At this period, he wrote nothing for the boards himself; but, now that his own productive period had expired, he became very zealous in discovering the laws which should have regulated it.

In his theory of the drama, singular inconsistencies and bold truths stand side by side. In the first place, he acknowledges

unreservedly the authority of Aristotle, and goes so far as to call him the dramatic Euclid. But while he retained his allegiance to the Greek, he entered into an alliance with a Frenchman, whose system was exactly opposite; this was Diderot, whose system was based on a false idea of the natural, and who strenuously endeavoured to banish all poetry from the stage. The influence of Diderot has not yet expired in Germany; and Lessing still continues to be regarded as his scholar, although in his last dramatic production, "Nathan," he deserted his system *. Nothing can be more witty than the polemical articles of our author against Racine and Voltaire, and few things better than the criticisms on Shakspeare, which are contained in his "Dramaturgie." The bad effects, however, of his prosaic system are visible in the first dramatic productions of Goethe and Schiller, and in the works of Iffland and Kotzebue. Iffland brought the kitchen on the stage, and gave dramatic lessons on domestic economy. The public, after having been plagued with their debts, disorders, and family disputes at home, had to endure a second edition of them at the theatre. Kotzebue's material was a slippery moral, whitewashed with magnanimity: more business-like than Iffland, he generally let a rich nabob fall from the clouds to pay all debts, quiet all quarrels, and liberate the *dramatis personæ* from prison before the conclusion of the piece. The works of both were written in prose, and at last, the players, who were as fond of nature as the public, could not be induced to perform any piece which was written in verse, unless, indeed, they were deceived by its being transcribed without a margin and without capital letters, and were allowed to deliver it as they pleased. Schiller was, for some time, obliged to have recourse to this method, in order to get his dramas represented.

We now proceed to an account of the literary career of Christopher Martin Wieland, who was born at Biberach, in Suabia, in 1733, and who died in 1813. At the age of fourteen he was sent to school at Klosterbergen, near Magdeburg; and thence he went to reside at Erfurt, with one of his relations.

* "Nathan" has been translated by Taylor, in his Historic Survey of "German Poetry."

Shortly afterwards we find him at Tubingen, attempting to study the law, a profession, however, which he could never bring himself cordially to embrace. In 1752, he had devoted himself to literature exclusively, and was living in the house of Bodmer, at Zurich, which place, however, he soon quitted, and led an unsettled life till he was invited to Weimar by the Duchess Amelia, whose friendship and protection he enjoyed to the day of his death.

We have described him, at first, as an adherent of Bodmer, and a zealous cultivator of the biblical epic; but about 1765 his character underwent a complete transition; he now appeared as the author of comic stories, and of romances, as "Agathon," "Musarion," and "The New Amadis." The philosophy which he here inculcated was a kind of eclectic epicureanism; he was afraid of virtue running into excess, and would fain deprive her of even the semblance of enthusiasm. His grand problem seems to have been, to combine sensuality with grace. That he was a tasteful writer no one can deny, but as a moral teacher he was decidedly reprehensible. The exalted efforts of our nature, he always affected to view with scrupulous suspicion; any love, except the sensual passion, he decried as deceit or an illusion. He once ventured to call the virtue of Cato a Dulcinea; but this called down upon him the indignation of the philosophic and excellent Jacobi, and in no trifling degree. Wieland, it would almost seem, wished to make a treaty with virtue, and to allow her certain rights, on condition that she should desist from the persecution of vice.

As a prose writer, Wieland must be contented to take a much lower station than as a poet: his diffuseness is perhaps his least fault, for it is generally graceful; but his style is complex, and full of parentheses. Greece, in its bright period between Pericles and Alexander, is his scene and subject; but his heroes, instead of being Greeks, are moderns, and of the French school. His light and humorous manner he chiefly owed to the study of Cervantes, Sterne, and La Fontaine; his disposition to philosophise is his own. In his prose works he has an unhappy method of betraying his erudition too consciously, by recondite allusions,

and, what is worse, by foreign words. It is somewhat remarkable, that his moral laxity and slippery descriptions should have been received favourably by a public then so unaccustomed to such liberties as the German; certainly they would have been tolerated in no other than a Grecian garb, and in no form except that of a philosophic romance: though here we must observe, that Wieland's philosophy is far more dangerous than his elegant licentiousness; the latter addresses itself only to the senses, whilst the former strikes at the very basis of our moral nature.

The last great work of Wieland was his "Oberon," on which his poetic fame is greatly grounded, though, in fact, it is rather a story in verse than a poem. It is an arbitrary, and far from harmonious, mixture of the fairy tale and the heroic legend. Then, again, even in the distant age of which it treats, and in the land of fairy, Wieland never forgets his philosophy and himself. How differently Ariosto, whose imitator he once announced himself to be, pictures the same period, displaying all the depth, clearness, and childlike, but healthy, simplicity of the epic poet!

The repose of Wieland's declining years was somewhat disturbed by the anxiety of his old friends to remind him of his desertion of the severe morality which he had formerly professed; but his conciliatory character had its effect even on the most violent of these. In private life, we must do him the justice to say, he was one of the most amiable of mankind; and it is his evident benevolence which has, doubtless, greatly contributed to hide from every eye except that of the critic, the prejudicial effects which his works are calculated to produce.

Principal Works of Wieland. The Nature of Things (1751). Spring (1752). The Trial of Abraham (1753). Lady Jane Grey, a Tragedy (1758). Comic Tales (1762). Don Sylvio de Rosalva (1766). Agathon (1767). The Graces (1770). The New Amadis (1771). The Abderites (1773). Oberon (1780). Euthanasia (1805)*.

We have now finished our retrospective review, and shall pro-

* The "Oberon" has been well translated by the late Mr. Sotheby. The story has been agreeably exhibited to the public by Mr. Planchè, in his opera of "Oberon." Some of his lesser prose compositions have been translated in the "Varieties of Literature."

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ceed to the grand epoch of German literature,—to the appearance of men who are its glory and its boast. But let us, before we enter upon the works of Herder, Goethe, and Schiller, give a short sketch of the character of Voss, a man of acknowledged merit, who cannot well be classed with any school.

John Henry Voss was a native of Mecklenburg, where he was born in 1751. After having been at school at Brandenburg, he studied at Gottingen. During the best part of his life, he was a schoolmaster in the North of Germany; afterwards, he was attached to the University of Heidelberg, at which town he died in 1826. Voss was a man who owed his success entirely to his own exertions; born in unfavourable circumstances, he reached no trifling eminence in learning and literature.

In speaking of his poems, it is necessary to make a critical distinction between the different editions: in the first, of eight volumes, he incurred considerable censure from frequent coarseness of expression, and a disgusting fidelity of delineation in the treatment of unpoetical subjects; in the last, of four volumes, he expunged the parts most repugnant to the intervening criticism. His songs are genuine effusions of powerful feelings naturally expressed, but without much pretension to originality. His Idylls contain his happiest efforts; in the description of rural rites and feasts he is often inimitable. Unfortunately, he too frequently deserts the poetical for the vulgar view of such subjects; taste, which alone can draw the line between them, he unfortunately did not possess. The best idyll of Voss is his excellent poem of "Luise," in which, with a spirit caught from the bard of the Odyssey, he charms the reader with the simplest details respecting a country clergyman and his happy family. The translations of Voss have had much more influence on German literature than his original works. The accuracy with which he has reproduced the classics in that language is astonishing; but, unfortunately, the grace, harmony, and simplicity of the original are too often lost in his translation.

Principal Works of Voss. Translation of Homer (1793). Translation of Virgil (1799). Translation of Horace (1806). Luise (1795). Idylls (1800). Lyrical Poems (1802).

Herder, the friend and early patron of Goethe, was born at Mohringen, a small place in East Prussia, in 1744; his father was a schoolmaster, and he received from him the rudiments of his education. At an early age, he was persuaded to go to Russia and study medicine, and was at Königsberg on his way thither, when he determined to embrace the profession of theology. In 1768, he became travelling tutor to the duke of Holstein-Eutin. In 1770, he was appointed court preacher at Buckeburg; and five years afterwards was called to Weimar, where he found a most gracious reception, and a permanent abode.

Herder was a critic, and in the best sense of the word,—one who was fonder of dwelling upon beauties, than of searching out defects. He was of a pliable, plastic, susceptible nature; at last, perhaps, he verged towards the undecided and indefinite; and even in his best years, we too often miss in him the strength and acuteness of a master-mind. He first gave to German literature that cosmopolitical tendency, which has increased since his time to such a degree, as to have become its peculiar boast. Herder was a poet, but not a philosopher;—rather a literary than a learned man. He had the faculty of happily divining where he could not see very clearly. Though acquainted with many languages, he had not a thorough knowledge of one. His researches on the subject of popular and legendary poetry seem to have led him to the conclusion, that the Muses can only be successfully cultivated by their rudest votaries. But this is a grand mistake; Art is natural to man, who cannot, even in his wildest state, be lost to a love of it; and why should poetry be deprived of its aid? We do not disgrace the heavenly guest by clothing her in a costly dress; we rather heighten the variety of her beauties, and of our own enjoyment.

Principal Works of Herder. On the Origin of Language (1770). Spirit of Hebrew Poetry (1782). Ideas towards a Philosophical History of Mankind (1784). Letters on the Progress of Humanity (1793). Reason and Experience (1799)*.

* Herder's History of Man has been translated by Charles Johnston, (in 4to., and in 2 vols. 8vo.) His work on Hebrew Poetry has been translated in America, (2 vols.) Some specimens of his style are also to be found in "The Linguist," and in the German translations on the Hamiltonian plan, by Staehle.

Herder and Buerger are both fond of characterising Homer as the poet of the people; but the fact is, that the Greek singers of his age practised their art not in public, but in the halls and palaces of princes, and it was not till the decline of Greece that their voices were heard in the streets. Let it not to be supposed, however, that we undervalue the meritorious exertions of Herder and Buerger in the field of popular poetry; the former discovered the treasures of by-gone ages, and the latter coined them anew for the enjoyment of the present.

Buerger's ballads, and particularly his "Leonora," and "The Wild Huntsman," are amongst the most splendid productions of which German literature can boast. Nor can we, whilst admiring his works, omit to commemorate the amiable character of the unfortunate Buerger. Although his poems, precious as they are, still want the high worth of their ancient models, yet he little merited the severe attacks of Schiller, whose lofty rhetoric imposed on and wounded him, and was yet, in fact, beneath his notice*.

Johann Wolfgang von Goethe was born on the 28th of August, 1749, at Frankfort on the Main, where he received his early education: he afterwards studied at Strasburg and Leipsic, and spent his manhood and old age at Weimar. A number of circumstances combined to call into action the poetical faculties with which he was endowed. He was born at a period when the public were susceptible, without being satiated; Klopstock had awakened them to the beauties of poetry, and Wieland had kept the imagination alive. The learned world had been revolutionised by the boldness of Lessing, and the genius of Winkelman. The political horizon was bright with unwonted colours; in the north, a new kingdom was rising under the auspices of the great Frederic, and the south of Germany was shortly afterwards agitated by the imperial innovator, Joseph II. Freedom in an innocent garb became a fashionable guest at German courts; and the sovereigns vied with each other in granting freer institutions to their subjects. In his first works, Goethe was the advocate of that which he felt to be Nature, against that which he thought to be Art. His "Götz

* Buerger's ballad of "Leonora," has been several times translated into English; and in particular by the late William Spenser, and by Walter Scott.

von Berlichingen," was written in defiance of all the old dramatic laws; and in "Werter" he would seem to have aimed at the abolition of the conventional and artificial, and at the recognition of what was called the voice of Nature in their stead.

Götz is an historical tragedy, of which the hero flourished in the beginning of the fifteenth century; his iron hand is still to be seen at Heilbronn; and an autobiography, composed with all the sterling simplicity of his age, has descended to us under his name. Goethe's play fulfils the first requisition of the dramatic critic; it is conceived in the spirit of the age which it portrays; its characters live before us, and whilst we behold them, we breathe the air of romance, and live in the olden time. Unfortunately, its irregularity of construction and mass of incident render an adequate representation of it impossible. Götz von Berlichingen was the first *Ritter-schauspiel* (drama of chivalry), and was followed immediately by a thousand imitations: the species has continued to degenerate, and is become at last the disgrace of German literature.

A year after Götz, appeared "The Sorrows of Werter," which produced an incalculable effect upon the public, by whom it was tumultuously received. This book is a singular mixture of truth and fiction; to a certain extent, the author identified himself with his hero, and then superadded the misfortunes of a young man named Jerusalem, whose suicide, the consequence of an unfortunate passion, made at that time considerable sensation. As far as the sentiments and feelings of Werter are concerned, we may take the identification to be complete; though how far the author was conscious of it at the time of writing is uncertain.

Of the attacks which this work met with at the hands of the critics, Goethe took no notice; but he subsequently added one to their number, in his "Triumph of Sentimentality." With this latter word, "Werter" was the first to make us acquainted; great as is the part which it has played in our time, we may search for it in vain before the days of Goethe. The feeling, though now naturalised in Germany, is of foreign origin. The *Nouvelle Heloise* of Rousseau first perfectly incorporated it, and is composed of little else; it is more artificial, but less morally objec-

tionable than "Werter." In England, Sterne had touched the same chord, but with a steadier hand and a healthier result. The work, however, which mainly contributed to establish the fashionable feeling in Germany, was the "Ossian" of Macpherson, in which the morbid refinement of the moderns is pictured to have existed at an age, and amongst a people, where no refinement whatever was known.

The next works of Goethe were two dramas in prose, "Stella," and "Clavigo," which contain all the faults of his former productions, and very few of their beauties. He presents us here with a picture of the dissolution of all definite and decided character, in obedience to the involuntary and immediate voice of what he was pleased to call Nature; and the very force with which he had before sketched this condition in "Werter," would seem now to be dissipated by the enervating theme. "Stella," he entitled a tragedy for lovers, but a good tragedy cannot be usurped by any class; it addresses itself to mankind at large. The hero is a worthless character, who is subject to every feeling, and faithful to none. Discontented with ordinary felicity, he sets out in search of something more than happiness. After deserting his wife and daughter, and uniting himself to the innocent and lovely heroine, without any diminution of his passion for the latter, remorse seizes him on account of his treatment of the former, and he hits upon the convenient idea of arranging the matter so as to be able to live with both, in a way of his own, somewhat repugnant to conjugal institutions. In these plays, Goethe allows all emotions and feelings to have their course, without disturbing them by even the mention of morality; but such a system undermines all strength of mind, all dignity of character, and instead of having a right to our sympathy, it demands our contempt. "Stella" has been compared with the "Count of Gleichen;" but, whoever has attentively perused the old legend, will feel that there is little analogy between them; the husband here is separated by a continent from his spouse; he has been long supposed to be dead, and he owed his life to the fair Saracen, whose love, though he returned, he had not sought.

Shortly after the publication of these dramas, a metamorphosis

began to take place in the literary character of Goethe; he recognised his errors, and was one of the few men of his time who rescued himself from the influence of his works; he withdrew to study and self-examination, and all that was heard of him for some years, was an indefinite report of his being engaged in the composition of "Faust." In 1788, he published "Egmont," the most theatrical of his tragedies, in which he is no longer true to his theory of the natural, for the language, instead of being the prose of common life, rises often to the poetical.

At this period Goethe made a deep study of the Greek tragedy, and recognised the poetical foundation on which Shakspeare's world is built; the result of this is to be traced in his "Iphigenia in Tauris;" and "Egmont" is a sufficient proof of the progress he had made in the comprehension of the English dramatist. The idea of making Tasso the hero of a play, occurred to Goethe during a journey through Italy. His drama of this name has a certain incidental interest, inasmuch as it doubtless, to a certain extent, describes his own situation. The love of a poet for a princess, and the embarrassing circumstances with which it is accompanied, were subjects with which he was not unacquainted. The elegance and correctness of diction in this poem, cannot be surpassed; but it had faults which no one had anticipated in Goethe; it was too cold, too artificial. He had not only undergone a change, but he had passed to the opposite of his former self. He was now a courtier, and in this, as well as in others of his compositions, would seem to be visited by conflicting suggestions, by those of his old genius and by those of his new character. The work which bears most prominently the stamp of the assumed elevation of which at this period he is justly accused, is his "Natural Daughter;" of this it has been justly said, that it is as polished and as cold as marble; the indifference with which it was received by the public warned the prudent poet to return to nature.

In 1794, Goethe published his "Wilhelm Meister," which was received by the public with indifference; the literary world, however, prepared its ultimate success by enthusiastic laudation. The style of this work is admirable: the clearness and depth of

thought it displays, are alike remarkable, but it has the one great fault of its great author—it is an imperfect whole. It does not solve the problem which forms its foundation; it is but an introduction, a beginning without an end. Still, though the frame is imperfect, it contains figures which are gloriously painted. The views of the drama and of art in general which it displays, are worthy of more praise than the philosophy which the author puts into the mouths of men who contemplate life from a point the exact position of which it is difficult to understand.

During the early part of his career, Goethe had paid but little attention to versification, though some of his most durable fame rests on the versified productions of his youth—his ballads and songs, which for melody and depth of feeling, are truly singular. He now, to exercise himself in the composition of hexameters, composed an excellent version of Reynard the Fox, in that form, of which he shortly afterwards showed himself a master, in his "Herrmann and Dorothea." This work regained for him, in a great measure, the favour of the public; its genuine warmth of feeling, and poetic truth, were universally applauded. It is doubly valuable, as showing both the critical and imaginative faculties of our author; as being at once a modern poem, and the representative of the ancient epic of the Greeks.

Though Goethe was manager of the theatre at Weimar, he did not contribute much by his writings to the modern progress of the drama; the exertion of interesting and exciting a multitude, was foreign to the contemplative repose of his nature; and even where, as in "Faust," his genius assumes a dramatic form, it is as far as possible removed from the theatrical.

The tragedy of "Faust," was one of Goethe's earliest and latest labours; the first part was published in 1790, and it was not finished till 1831. This is one of the most genial works of the greatest German poet, but it is not a philosophic whole. It displays dramatic talent, but its different scenes, the force and beauty of some of which are perhaps unequalled, were nevertheless not composed with any determinate view of their ultimate position. The idea of finding a philosophic system in this poem is ludicrous, and the volumes which have been published

with that intention are only valuable as curiosities. Perhaps it would have been more perfect as a poem, had it never been finished; as it now stands, it has the requisites to completeness of a beginning and an end, but at a considerable sacrifice of connexion. It has been given to the public in four successive portions, and each succeeding part has confuted at least half the liberal criticisms which had been heaped upon the former one.

The episode of Faust and Helen, in the second part, may be viewed as an attempt at the union of the principles of classic and romantic poetry. Towards the conclusion of the work, he wanders more and more into phantasmagorical regions; in conformity, doubtless, with the nature of the legend, but not equally so with the manner in which he had at first connected the subject with reality. A mixture of weakness and obscurity is, perhaps, the unavoidable concomitant of age; depth of thought and feeling may remain, but vigour to express them vanishes with youth. Thus, in the last creations of Goethe, the outline is gone, and the figure melts away on all sides into air.

Goethe did not shine in a critical capacity; he prescribed to all artists a strict imitation of the ancients; but this is at once a narrow-minded and discouraging doctrine, for every age, unless it be worthless, must have a character of its own. The genius of the middle ages displayed unrivalled excellence in many departments which were uncultivated by the classics; and if originality is to be proscribed, Goethe himself must be content to lose the greatest part of his reputation. In his later criticisms, Goethe displays a childish self-complacency, and an amicable tolerance of mediocrity; he was not only indisposed to censure anything, but inclined to praise all that he noticed *.

* Goethe has almost invariably been described in the language of unqualified panegyric, and his character as a man is little known to foreigners. Menzel, in his "Deutsche Literatur," has done some service in probing thoroughly the pretensions of Goethe; perhaps he has been somewhat rough in his manipulation. Genius is a gift of nature, but the use which we make of it is our own, and for this we may justly be brought to judgment. Goethe possessed more *influence* than any writer ever enjoyed; idolised by his countrymen, caressed in palaces, and sung in the cottage, he might have done something more than amuse. No one was ever improved by his works, none ever became less sensual, less worldly, less intriguing, less profane. Although he has touched every string of literature, nowhere does

Principal Works of Goethe. Götz von Berlichingen, (1773). Clavigo (1774). Werter (1774). Stella (1776). Iphigenia (1787). Egmont (1788). Tasso (1790). Faust (1790). The Gross Cophta (1792). Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship (1794-6). Herrman and Dorothea (1798). The Natural Daughter (1804). Elective Affinities (1809). Autobiography (1811-22). Wilhelm Meister's Wandering Years (1821)*.

Frederic Schiller was born at Marbach, in Suabia, where his father, an army chaplain, was stationed, in 1759. In 1775, he went to Stuttgard to study medicine, but he soon deserted this profession for literary pursuits, and accordingly was severely censured for his irregularities by the duke of Wurtemberg, who refused to authorise him to quit the medical school. Schiller left the country in consequence, and lived for some time under a false name at Bauerbach. In 1785, he went to reside

he rouse to patriotism, to religious reverence, to the domestic duties; one almost confounds the notion of right and wrong in reading his works, all seems blended and confused,—amusement and the fine arts, theatres and critics, the passions and the cleverest modes of gratifying them, appear the great object of life. Let one short trait suffice: when Napoleon entered Berlin in triumph, Müller wrote a Discourse in French (De la Gloire de Frederic), in which he compared the Conqueror to the old Prussian hero; Goethe translated it into German; and at another time, wrote an Epithalamium for this evil genius of his country.

* The extreme popularity which Goethe enjoys in Germany, and the continual recurrence of his name in conversation, will render the English reader curious to ascertain the best form in which he can be seen at home. His "Werter" has never been well translated into English; the work which is sold under that title, is only a feeble imitation from a poor French copy. "Götz von Berlichingen," it was one of the earliest efforts of Walter Scott to translate. The "Wilhelm Meister" has been admirably translated by Mr. Carlyle, but does not appear to have been much read. Some of his smaller poems have been translated by the late M. G. Lewis, and by Mr. Dodd in his "Autumn on the Rhine;" some by the Rev. Dr. Hawtrey, Head Master of Eton School, in his volume called "Auswahl von Goëthe's Lyrischen Gedichten." His "Iphigenia in Tauris," has been translated by Taylor, of Norwich. A few short specimens of Goethe have been well rendered by the late unfortunate Mr. Boileau, in "The Linguist." In the several collections of "German Tales," published by Carlyle and Gillies, some more of his prose fictions are contained. His drama of "Faust," has been successively introduced to the public by Lord Francis Egerton, who led the way, by Hayward, Syme, Anster, Blackie, and Talbot. His "Autobiography" has been translated from the unfinished French version. Those who wish for ample details respecting this singular writer, will be highly gratified by the elegant "Characteristics of Goethe," from the pen of Mrs. Austin, who has so ably laboured in the German harvest;—but they do not unfold the whole man.

at Leipsic, and four years afterwards, he accepted the Professorship of History at Jena, at which place he remained till he removed to Weimar, where he died in 1805.

The circumstances of Schiller's youth, were exactly such as to prevent the harmonious development and cultivation of his intellectual faculties; his character was inconsistent with his situation, and his youth was a perpetual struggle.

Nothing could possibly be more galling to a mind like his than the arbitrary regulations of the military institution at Stuttgard, in which he was educated. Here he wrote his Titanic poem, "The Robbers," which indicates sufficiently the wild force of his character, and the despotism of the circumstances which had almost driven him to madness. This work is worse than "Werter," because more unnatural; with loud pretensions to originality, it bears prominent marks of imitation.

Francis Moor is a prosaic Richard III., exciting equal hatred, but demanding no admiration. The fame which this play obtained for him, freed Schiller from the shackles of his situation, and he now was appointed to a post in connexion with the theatre, at Mannheim, where he published his "Fiesco" and his "Cabal and Love." Perhaps the peculiar feature of the former is its political bearing; which forms its chief claim to originality. "Cabal and Love" abounds in convulsive demonstrations of passion. To his first career of enthusiasm succeeded, with Schiller as well as with Goethe, a period of self-examination and study. His next production was "Don Carlos," of which the outline is good, the plot powerful, and the execution a manifest improvement on his former works. Its versification, however, is indifferent throughout: the style keeps a middle course between his former extravagance and the lofty rhetoric of the French: the political philosophy which pervades it, is as foreign to the century which it represents, as it would be to the most distant we can imagine. It professes to be an historical picture, but it is, in fact, a work of invention; and the rude features of the poet's former muse, break everywhere through the more civilized mask he had now attempted to assume. A year after the appearance of "Don Carlos," Schiller published his

fragment on the history of the insurrection in the Netherlands, a subject which he had not studied very profoundly, and which he did not know how properly to treat. The duty of the true historian is, if the expression may be used, to reflect events, and not to reflect upon them. Our author now essayed the "History of the Thirty Years' War," and showed that he had made considerable improvement as an historical writer; indeed, his whole life was a series of improvements.

In 1798, appeared "Wallenstein," a play in three parts, of which the first is not connected with the others, of which the second has no end, and the third no beginning. About this time, Schiller avowed himself a disciple of Kant, whose terminology imposed on the public to such an extent, that it was thought he had found a key to all the difficulties in the arts and sciences. Our author's philosophical disquisitions were more than ordinarily successful, because he was, at any rate, either intelligible or elegantly obscure; but he was too abstract and refined to produce any more than a temporary impression. The negative axioms of Kant's philosophy were true, though the positive were shadowy and unsatisfactory; indeed, his whole system was sceptical, though his followers long persisted in boasting of its constructive powers.

After the publication of "Wallenstein," which was enthusiastically received both by the reading and the theatrical public, Schiller devoted himself more exclusively to the drama; and he now struck into a path which was to be intermediate between the classic and the romantic, though, in fact, it was only situated between both without being allied to either. Of his subsequent plays, "Mary Stuart," is one of the best; its representation is very effective, though partly at the expense of historical truth. In his "Maid of Orleans," considering the romantic view which he took of the character of his heroine, the colouring of the execution was too faint; for Schiller, though of a bold and uncompromising nature, was timid and misgiving as an artist.

The "Bride of Messina," and its preface, may be looked upon as a confession which Schiller was at the trouble of making of his own imperfections; and from the latter, which betrays a com-

plete confusion in his ideas respecting the theory of the drama, we may gather, that he understood the classic principle which he sought to imitate, no better than the romantic which he wished to avoid. It is the truth and beauty of single passages, belonging more to lyric than to dramatic poetry, which constitute, in the public mind, Schiller's great claims to dramatic excellence; but the poetical episodes of a drama are often its most glaring faults.

The "Bride of Messina" is half-ancient and half-modern, both christian and classic, without an attempt at alliance between the opposite elements. It is impossible to imagine a costume for this play. The chorus differs from that of the Greeks, in being divided into two interested parties, who do everything but come to blows for their leaders. But the Greek chorus is essentially an impartial whole; and represents the ideal, contemplative spectator of the drama.

Even the last and best play of Schiller, "William Tell," is not free from a trace of his love of tragic antithesis; the murder of the emperor Albert is something quite foreign to the liberation of Switzerland; and it is evident that the murderer is merely introduced for the purpose of being contrasted with Tell. The local truth of this drama is extraordinary, particularly when we recollect that Schiller had never been in Switzerland: he was indebted for it, in a great measure, doubtless, to the admirable history of John von Müller.

The lyrical poetry of Schiller has been eminently successful, both at home and abroad; and his ballads have been held up as perfect models. But, in truth, this is his weakest side, and his ballads are among the worst which we possess. All his works are more or less imperfect, but these are glaringly faulty; for everywhere, even in the simple legends of old which they profess to revivify, we are troubled with his philosophic reflections and the discord of a modern nature. Had he lived longer, it is uncertain how far he might have been successful in correcting all his faults; some of them appear too deeply rooted to have been ever thoroughly eradicated. But let us conclude justly, by remembering to praise the candour which rendered him alive to

his defects, and the genuine modesty which always restrained him from great pretensions*.

Principal Works of Schiller. The Robbers (1781). Fiesco (1783). Cabal and Love (1784). History of the Revolution in the Netherlands (1788). History of the Thirty Years' War (1791). Wallenstein (1798). Maria Stuart (1800). Joan of Arc (1801). The Bride of Messina (1803). William Tell (1804).

There is also a novel by him, translated by Mr. Roscoe, in his "German Novelists," called "The Apparitionist."

* The reader will recollect that the above character of Schiller, is only the private estimate formed of him by Professor Schlegel, who entertains a very different opinion on this head from that which is current in Germany and elsewhere. The "Life of Schiller," by Carlyle, may be studied as an opposite view. All, or nearly all, of the works of Schiller may be read in English. Among the translations deserve particularly to be noticed, the "Wallenstein," by Coleridge, truly remarkable for its kindred fire of genius, and the "Camp of Wallenstein," excellently rendered by Lord Francis Egerton. His "Minor Poems" have been often before the public. "Fiesco," the "Minister," "Mary Stuart," the "Robbers," "Don Carlos," and "William Tell," have all been well translated, and some more than once. The "Thirty Years' War," and the "Ghost-seer," are also accessible. Mr. Carlyle has enriched our literature with an admirable "Life of Schiller," full of poetic feeling and refined criticism. It has been translated into German, and is considered by the Germans as the best memoir extant of their poet. It abounds in instructive views of the literature and taste of that region.

CHAPTER VI.

MODERN GERMAN LITERATURE, CONTINUED.

The Romantic School. Augustus William von Schlegel. Frederic Schlegel. Tieck, Wackenroder, and Novalis. Achim von Arnim and Brentano. Schleiermacher, Goöres, and Steffens. Kleist, Fouqué, and Horn. German Humourists of the past Century. Thümmel, Hippel and Lichtenstein. Humourists of the present Century. Richter, Hoffman, and Chamisso. Werner, Müllner, and Grillparzer. Koerner. Modern Lyric Poets. Uhland, Schwab, Rückert, Platen, and Chamisso. Henry Heine, and Boerne.

In the latter part of the last century, a school made its appearance in Germany, which has obtained the appellation of Romantic. The term, which is rather indefinite, does not correspond very distinctly to its character. We are not to imagine that it was opposed to the spirit of the classic ages, which, on the contrary, it joyfully acknowledged and devoutly revered; but it believed that, while this spirit could not be too highly prized, it still ruled too exclusively in the world of art. The new school held, that we moderns are far removed from the state of being in which the classic spirit was born and flourished, and that, therefore, it can no longer have a living existence amongst us.

The Romantic School may be looked upon as a reaction against a preceding extreme. Goethe and Schiller had half disowned Christianity,—the latter indirectly, the former by an overt attack. They both looked upon it with indifference, if not with repugnance, as incompatible with their æsthetical theories. At any rate, to whatever extent they may have rejected its form, the fact is undeniable, that its spirit found no place in their works. A grand object of Goethe's endeavours appears to have been, to escape from its influence; and he would seem to have composed many of his works, and more particularly his Roman elegies, and some of his epigrams, to show that he had succeeded. Under

such circumstances a reaction was inevitable. The cold, remote, and artistic theories which he exclusively favoûred, could not find access to men of impassioned natures and ardent imaginations, for they were enthusiastically devoted to the Present, from the impressions of which he sought to fly. He wished to be thought a Greek, but they were Christians and could not forget it. They recognised the beauty of the classic world, but regarded it as something foreign and afar off, and looked for creative inspiration and more genial impressions to the works of modern art. They left Greece and Rome for the Christian middle ages. And as soon as they had proclaimed their object, the time assumed the character of a new era. The relics of old German painting were brought out from obscurity, and welcomed with enthusiasm. The Gothic architecture, regarded as a mysterious manifestation of the Catholic spirit, was worshipped in all its remains. The quaint ditties of the Minnesingers were heard on every lip. Not only at home, but abroad, all records of the faith and devotion of the chivalric ages were eagerly sought for, and appropriated to the purposes of the school. Italy saw poetical pilgrims arrive to do homage to its pictorial treasures. The dramas of Calderon were translated, and studied with a religious fervour; Shakspeare also, though his genius, which, if it was not exclusively Christian, like that of his Spanish contemporary, still belonged exclusively to a Christian age, met with unreserved and enthusiastic acknowledgment.

Herder and his friends had already wandered, far and wide, amongst the Hebrews, Spaniards, and old English, and had brought manifold treasures back to their German home. But they had had no other object than that of discovering genius, wherever and under whatever form it existed. The members of the Romantic School, on the other hand, set out with the end and aim of poetically re-establishing Catholicism. They were devoted to the cause of an hierarchy, and laboured to give a theocratical form to the general government. This has been their main and leading principle. They may have been, to some extent, unconscious of it, at first, and many may have deserted it on fully discovering its tendency, but this does not invalidate the general

statement. However, the Romantic School was not actuated to such an extent by party principles, as to be blind to all which did not further its particular objects. Indeed, it was the first to make generally known the profundity of Goethe's genius; and it was only when he refused to give a Christian character to his productions, that the indignation of Novalis was roused against him,—that Frederic Schlegel called him a German Voltaire,—and that his brother, William, pronounced him a Heathen converted to Mahometanism, a creed for which, strange to say, Goethe is known to have entertained a decided predilection.

The founders and most active members of the Romantic School were the Schlegels, Frederic and William, Tieck and Novalis.

Augustus William von Schlegel was born at Hanover, in the year 1767. At a comparatively early age, he went to Göttingen to study theology, which he in a short time deserted, nominally for philosophy, but in reality for literary pursuits. Göttingen he left to be tutor in a family at Amsterdam, where he resided three years, and then returned to Germany, and settled at Jena. Here, till the year 1799, he was actively engaged in writing for different periodicals, principally for Schiller's "Horen," and the Jena "Literaturzeitung." In 1802, we find him lecturing at Berlin on literature, art, and the spirit of the age. Shortly afterwards he became acquainted with Madame de Stael, in whose company he left Germany, for foreign travel, in 1805. With her, he resided, at intervals, at Copet, and visited Italy, France, Vienna and Stockholm. In 1808, he gave his celebrated lectures, at Vienna, on dramatic art and literature. In 1813, he shared the political character of his time, and acted in the capacity of private secretary to the crown-prince of Sweden, by whom the ancient title of his family was restored to him. After the fall of Napoleon, he returned to Madame de Stael, whose society he frequented till her decease, when he was appointed to the Professorship at Bonn, which he still continues to hold.

William Schlegel is distinguished for critical, rather than creative power. No original work of genius has issued from his mind. He is a master of comprehension and analysis. Few men have combined such immense learning as he possesses, with such a fine

sense of the beautiful, and such a rigorous critical system. He has been entitled, and not unjustly, the first critic of modern times. His classical acquirements are of the first order, and he has written imitations of the ancients, which show that he was fully capable of embodying the spirit of old. With the literature of the middle ages, and particularly with that of our Elizabethan era, he is intimately acquainted. He seems to lose the character of his nation as soon as he passes her boundaries, and to assume that of any other country the literature of which he may examine, criticise, or translate. He is bound by no ties or associations, and acknowledges only a general standard of truth, beauty, and genius. He may be said to have established the critical system which at present obtains in Germany, and which is essentially superior to that which any other country possesses.

His earliest studies he devoted to the classics. Before he was twenty, he wrote an excellent treatise on the geography of the Homeric world. But he soon deserted mere philology, and took an active share in the literary campaigns of the time. He began to make his critical principles known in the periodicals, and commenced his translation of Shakspeare. Of the former, we can only mention here the general nature and bearing. As a critic, Schlegel has always insisted on a rigorous definition, and an impartial judgment. He views the works of literature in connexion with the time and country which gave them birth. He holds that there are certain internal laws which ought to give its suitable form to a poem, and that, therefore, the construction of the latter can never be regulated by abstract dicta or philosophical conclusions. He compares the cramping of genius by rules, to an attempt to mould a fruit into a different shape from that which Nature has given it. In the works of great authors, he proves that an apparently irregular arrangement is demanded by the nature of the subject, and by the spirit in which it is treated. He demonstrates that every scene in Shakspeare is necessary to the perfection of the whole, which must inevitably be injured by any alteration. He wages incessant war with the narrow-minded commentators, who are always quarrelling with the past because it is not the present. In fine, he can transport himself into all

ages and countries, and thus familiarise himself with the spirit in which every national poem was written. He enters into its intimate constitution, and feels, as it were, its creation anew. He divests himself of all preconceived notions, and studies it as a natural philosopher would a new organization.

Schlegel's translation of Shakspeare, which he commenced in 1797, is unique; unfortunately he has not finished it. The latter part of the last century was the most active period of his life. He then resided at Jena, where a singular intimacy prevailed amongst the members of his own party, and where he was in constant communication with some of the most celebrated men of his time. His school was too daring and sarcastic to please the elder literati, or to suit the public generally. The latter was indignant at the ridicule which it heaped, without mercy, on old Wieland, who was then in the hey-day of his popularity. Even Goethe and Schiller were not very well pleased with the clamour which was raised by these new aspirants for fame. The latter went so far as to call the two Schlegels, "prigs."

At this period, William Schlegel was vigorously engaged in attacking Kotzebue, who had just written against him his "Hyperborean Ass." The dramatist, though his arguments were of the weakest, was a match for his opponent, in daring assertion and abuse. He anathematised all the newer literature, and declared that even Goethe did not know how to write German. Schlegel's parody is of the happiest description. A short poem of his, written about this time, to ridicule the different styles of Voss, Schmidt, and Matthison, is perfect of its kind. But his opinion of the length to which the satirist may proceed, does not at all accord with the good-natured views of the German public, which was sadly outraged but a few years ago, when he published some sharp, but playful, attacks on Goethe and Schiller in the "Muses' Almanack."

The most important work of Schlegel is, perhaps, his "Lectures on Dramatic Art and Literature," which contain a complete survey and critical history of the drama, from its rise to the present day. No particular theory is predominant throughout, and no partial leaning is evident to any particular form. The Greek drama is

thoroughly appreciated, and elevated far beyond the point to which mere philologers would raise it. No comparisons are made between subjects which have no right to be compared. No foreign rules are brought to bear on national productions. Sophocles and Shakspeare stand side by side, perfect and independent in their separate spheres. It is only with regard to one country that Schlegel would, at first, seem to be prejudiced. He is deaf to the dramatic and poetical pretensions of the French. With the solitary exception of the "Athalie" of Racine, he ridicules all their tragedies. Nor does the far-famed Molière find any favour at his hands. He displayed, says Schlegel, no talent in true comedy, which ought not to be propped on satire and burlesque; he was rather an ironical preacher of rhymed morality than a dramatic poet. He analyzes the plots of his principal plays, and shows that they are neither rational nor imaginative—poetical nor philosophical. He maintains that whatever the "Tartuffe" may be, it is neither true comedy nor an approach to it. These novel opinions, (though they have since been fast gaining ground and making swift progress to general acceptation) created a great sensation at the time, even amongst the Germans, who had been accustomed, since the days of Lessing, to treat French literature with considerable contempt. Several writers, still harbouring the Gallic predilections of the elder German literati, protested against them, and even old Goethe felt himself, at a later period, called upon to come forward, in his formal way, and censure the unceremonious manner in which Molière had been treated by his countryman. Schlegel's work has been ably translated into English by Mr. Black, and, therefore, there is no occasion for us to mention here the fine analysis which it gives of the works of Shakspeare. The lyrical poems of Schlegel are more celebrated for beauty and elegance of form, and correctness of expression, than for force of original genius.

Of late years, Schlegel has turned his attention almost exclusively to Oriental literature, which he has cultivated with all the ardour and industry of his younger days. It is in Sanscrit that he is chiefly proficient. For the reprinting of classic works in this language, the Prussian government has furnished him with

a printing-press at Bonn. The manner in which the study of Oriental literature is prosecuted in other countries has also been an object of such solicitude to him, that he has not hesitated to attack foreign professors whose proceedings were not in accordance with his views. In 1828, he found it necessary publicly to repel the charge of having ever really belonged to the Catholic Propaganda, which, from the tendency of his earlier labours, Voss, his bitter enemy, and the Rationalists, had often brought against him.

Principal Works of W. A. Schlegel. On the Geography of the Homeric World (1787). Translation of Shakspeare (1797-1810). Poems (1800). Triumphal Arch for the Theatre. President, Kotzebue (1800). Ion (1803). Spanish Theatre (1803-9). Dramatic Art and Literature* (1809). Indian Library (1820).

Frederick von Schlegel, the brother of the preceding, was born, 1772, at Hanover, and received his earliest education from an elder brother and an uncle, who were both country clergymen. At first, he was intended for a merchant, and sent to a counting-house at Leipsic. But a commercial occupation was so incompatible with his tastes and habits, that his father was persuaded to allow him to quit it for a learned profession. Accordingly, he went to Göttingen and entered himself at the university as a student of philology. He finished his studies at Leipsic, and after residing some time at Berlin became a private teacher at the University of Jena. Here he made the acquaintance of the daughter of Mendelsohn, whom he afterwards married, and with whom, after passing a short time at Dresden, he visited Paris, where we find him, in 1802, delivering lectures on philosophy. On his return to Germany, he and his wife made a public and solemn recantation of the Protestant faith, and went over to Catholicism; the Cathedral at Cologne was appropriately chosen for the ceremony. In 1808, Frederick Schlegel went to Vienna, and the year after accompanied the Archduke Charles in his unfortunate campaign; at this stirring period his pen was employed in rousing the German people against foreign oppression by passionate appeals to their national feelings and recollections

of ancient glory. In 1811, he lectured at Vienna on Modern History. Some of his writings obtained for him, first the attention, and then the confidence of Prince Metternich, who appointed him secretary of legation to the Austrian embassy at Frankfort. He returned, however, to Vienna in 1818, and devoted himself once more to literary pursuits. He died in 1829, whilst giving a course of lectures at Dresden on the philosophy of language.

Frederick Schlegel does not equal his brother William in taste, elegance and versatility, but was perhaps his superior in vastness of conception and depth of thought. His intellectual career may be divided into several stages. During the first, he distinguished himself by intense study, and by the rapid acquirement of classical knowledge. His first work of importance, "The Greeks and Romans," was highly praised by the philologer Heyne. But he soon left the classical world, to take a share in contemporary literature, and even whilst engaged with Schleiermacher in the translation of Plato, wrote a number of critical and polemical articles in the "Athenæum," a periodical of which he and his brother were editors. Many of his dissertations on Goethe, and, particularly, on "Wilhelm Meister," are contained in this journal. In 1799, we find him in the new character of an equivocal novel writer—it was in that year that he published his "Lucinde." This work, of which only a part was ever completed, and in which a licentious imagination is allowed unbridled play with sensual subjects, created a great sensation in Germany. It was about the period of its publication that its author settled at Jena, and his private life there is said to have corresponded to the principles which his recent writings had inculcated. He became one of the loudest partisans of the Romantic School, which was just then in progress of formation. That he left his "Lucinde" unfinished shows that its character did not indicate a settled tendency of his nature. For some time after its publication he seems to have vacillated between various systems and to have really devoted himself to none. He essayed his powers in a dramatic, and in various lyrical forms. He then took up the study of the southern languages, and of the works of art which the middle ages have left us. These pursuits contributed to pave the

way to the grand and final change, which his moral and mental character was destined to undergo. This change was his conversion to the Romish church, of which he soon became one of the most zealous and unwearied agents. From this time forth, he assumed a decided character, and his efforts were exerted in a definite direction. Whatever he undertook was undertaken in the cause of the Roman Catholic church. Even his celebrated work, on the "Wisdom and Language of the Indians," is composed in a Catholic spirit. In his "Modern History" and "History of Ancient and Modern Literature," he strenuously advocates the same creed. Everywhere is Romanism defended and rescued from obloquy, and its opponents attacked and reviled. Luther is treated very unceremoniously as an adventurer, and as a man of bad moral character. The sincerity of Schlegel is, perhaps, as undoubted as his talent, but he is justly accused of many inconsistencies. His death, which occurred after an excess at table, gave rise to much recrimination between his friends and the liberal party in Germany, to which he was particularly obnoxious from his desertion of Protestantism, the mysticism of his creed, and his leaning to despotic power.

Principal Works of Frederick Schlegel. The Greeks and Romans (1797). Lucinde (1799). Alarkos, a drama (1802). Collection of the Romantic Poems of the Middle Ages (1804). On the Language and Wisdom of the Indians (1808). Poems (1809). On Modern History (1811). Lectures on the History of Ancient and Modern Literature [admirably translated by Mr. Lockhart] (1815). Philosophy of Life (1828). Philosophy of History (1829) [well translated by Mr. Robertson]. Lectures, principally on the Philosophy of Language (1829).

Ludwig Tieck was born at Berlin, in the year 1773. Few facts are known respecting his youth and early education, except that he went to school at Berlin, and afterwards studied at Halle. The Prussian capital was the scene of the first period of his literary activity. He was intimately connected with the noted Nicolai, the bookseller, at whose impulse he is said to have written some of his early works. Disputes, however, soon arose between patron and client, and the latter left Berlin about the year

1798, for Hamburg, where he married the daughter of Alberti, a clergyman. Then he lived for some time at Jena, which he quitted in 1801, for Dresden, when he devoted himself exclusively to the study of Art. From Dresden he retired to a poetical solitude near Frankfort on the Oder, and remained there for some time.

In 1806, we find him at Rome, busily engaged in the study of the old German manuscripts with which the library of the Vatican abounds. On his return to Germany, he led on the whole an unsettled life, till he was appointed to the superintendance of the theatre at Dresden, in which city he still lives.

Tieck is to be regarded as the true founder of the Romantic School in Germany. He united the creative with the critical faculty. Whilst he analysed the old world of literature, his genius contributed to the new one. He not only saw into the defects of the past and present, but he knew how to reform them. In this respect, the Schlegels were deficient; whatever may have been the extent of their reasoning powers, their invention was nearly barren. After his admirable history, and critical analysis of the drama, the elder Schlegel has nothing better to prescribe to the modern cultivators of the dramatic art, than a modified imitation of Shakspeare, forgetting that such a recommendation runs directly counter to the essential doctrines of his own criticism. But Tieck had a world within him, and had no occasion to look abroad for rules and models. His works were not the results of reflection, but, as it were, the spontaneous progeny of a rich imagination. He came forth in a monotonous and prosy time. Goethe had sunk into temporary obscurity, and was occupied more with scientific than with literary pursuits. The shock of Schiller's first appearance had subsided, and the middle course he was then steering, was anything but favourable to the free exercise of the imagination, which had also lately suffered numerous indignities from a school of German Utilitarians, who, from the nature of their characters, were disposed to cry down everything which soared above mediocrity, and whose demi-god was Intellect, the modern march of which they were amongst the first to commence. These were the famous Philistines, of whom there has been so

much talk both in Germany and in other countries. It would be difficult to enumerate the names of their chiefs, for most of them have gone to their long homes, without leaving any behind them. They were only formidable from the numbers, which, like all popular and superficial sects, they had managed to rank on their side. Those whose fame survives them, live only in the witty abuse of their adversaries. It was, as we have before observed, under the patronage of Nicolai, the bookseller, who was a great leader amongst the Philistines, that Tieck was ushered into public notice; and it was some time before the native force of his genius was able to shake off all the effects of habit and association. His first work, "William Lovel," gave but few indications of the character he was shortly to assume. It is a dark story, which plays principally in Italy; many of its incidents are revolting, and its whole colour is tragical. The mind of its author was not yet matured, or perhaps it languished under sinister impressions. But the innate grace of Tieck's nature could not long lie hidden. Nor could the susceptibility of his poetic soul allow him to listen quietly to the insults which imagination was daily receiving at the hands of his intellectual patrons. Accordingly, he did justice to himself and his poetic mission in his "Popular Legends," (*Volksmärchen*), and he avenged the Muses on their enemies in his satirical dramas. From the appearance of these works, the activity of the Romantic School in Germany may be dated. Let us first give some account of his "Popular Legends," which have since been embodied in his "Phantasus," and to which the English reader has access in the spirited translations of Mr. Carlyle. These legends are remarkable for their beauty, their genuine simplicity, and a mysterious intimacy, not so much with the works as with the workings of Nature. All her changes and metamorphoses, the poet follows with a watchful ear and a faithful hand. He would seem to have hung on the bosom of our common mother, and to have become familiar with the simple, yet miraculous power which directs all her operations. These legends have a freshness about them like that of the earliest morning, a sweetness as of wild flowers, and a calm beauty, caught as it were, from a radiant sunset, or a rising moon. The

reader of the "Runenberg," is brought face to face with the presiding spirits of the animal and vegetable kingdoms; now he feels as if he were embosomed in luxurious vegetation, bathed in fertilising dew and fanned by balmy zephyrs; and now, as if he were transported to cavern-depths, or darkest mines, where mountain-spirits exercise an unholy influence. All the other legends, "The Fair Eckbert," "The Fairies," and "The Trusty Eckart," have the same beauty and significance, but it is impossible, by mere description, to give any idea of their peculiar nature—they must be studied and felt, to be at all understood.

The satirical dramas of our author are as remarkable for their wit and humour, as his other works for their grace and truth. Indeed, he has been called, and with justice, the Romantic Aristophanes. His principal productions, in this character, are his "Puss in Boots," and the "World Topsy-turvy." They are directed against the Philistines in general, and against Kotzebue, Iffland, and some critics and philologers in particular. They are alike superior in conception and execution, and dealt blows which were never forgiven. But we doubt whether they would be relished or appreciated by the English public. They are sometimes witty without an apparent object, the imagination of the author playing with its own creations. This capricious sportiveness of the fancy, of which our poets of the Shakspearian age furnished so many examples, we are in danger of losing in becoming modern and merely rational.

In some works, Tieck has shown a leaning to Romanism; such are his "Geneviève," a drama founded on the old legend, and "Sternbald's Wanderings," which are dedicated to the fine arts. But all that he wrote, at one period, betrayed more or less of the same tendency.

Tieck has given to Germany the best translation which it possesses of Cervantes. With the study of Shakspeare he has been occupied all his life; the last century saw a translation of the "Tempest" by him, and some letters on its author. To the present day, he has been engaged in collecting materials, and giving shape to his opinions on Shakspeare. The great work which he has announced, on the genius and writings of the latter, has been

anticipated with singular eagerness by the German public; and, indeed, that which he has already written on the subject warrants great expectations, and two or three of his articles on Shakspeare, contained in a small work in two volumes, called "Dramaturgical Papers," display a better acquaintance with the genius of our great poet than perhaps any other inquirer has shown.

His studies and researches have led him to some apparently paradoxical conclusions. He maintains, for instance, that the essence of the nature of Lady Macbeth is overweening love, and that the celebrated soliloquy of Hamlet does not relate to suicide. A closer and more acute piece of reasoning than the one by which he arrives at this latter conclusion, can rarely be perused.

Tieck was in London in 1818, and wept in our national theatres over the mutilation of Shakspeare. Of course he has no mercy for the improvements of Tate, and the alterations of Garrick. He could hardly find words to express his indignation at the way in which Macbeth was represented at Drury Lane. He saw John Kemble, whose Coriolanus he applauded, but at whose Hamlet he smiled, take leave of the stage. The arbitrary interpretations, and, according to him, unjustifiable interpolations, of Kean, he could not tolerate. He saw Macready, then in his noviciate, perform in a modern tragedy, and Tieck foretold his future fame*. Miss O'Neill was his favourite heroine. Tieck was very much satisfied with his visit to England, and three of his most agreeable days were spent with Coleridge at Highgate.

After some years' cessation of his literary activity, Tieck appeared again as an author, about fourteen years ago, but in a new character. The zeal and enthusiasm of his early years had subsided, and had been followed by a perfect calm. The richness, buoyancy and petulance of an imagination impatient of control had vanished, and was succeeded by complete regularity and repose. He who had formerly done all from impulse, now subjected himself unreservedly to the sway of reason. At times, he would seem almost to have become one of those very Philistines, on whom it was his wont so stoutly to fall foul. But

* And would now be highly gratified by his restoration of Shakspeare in his genuine form and pressure.

this idea is not so much suggested by the character of his later works, as by their comparison with his former. We allude here to the "Tales" (*Novellen*), of which his latter years have been so productive. They are as perfect as anything he has written, but they are not of so high an order as his earlier works. They are psychological rather than poetical, treat of principle rather than passion, and their sphere is the head instead of the heart. When the spirit of the age takes an erratic direction, its faults and failings find a clear mirror in these works. Tieck never moralizes, but simply warns by telling the plain, unvarnished truth. He shows "the very age and body of the time." He is too much of a philosopher to fly into a passion with his fellow-men, at whose follies, on the contrary, he slily smiles. Tieck's "*Novellen*," are not the works of an optimist,—they unbare too cruelly our inevitable weaknesses, and repeat too plainly that folly is the heir-loom of our race. A vein of irony pervades them, of an effect sometimes too harsh. It would seem, now and then, as if the author wished to disown his kind, so completely does he despise it. We doubt whether such impressions ought to be left by works of art, and whether our author in striving not to be polemical, has not, in order to effect his object, been actuated by a polemical spirit. In point of style and form, these compositions are highly finished.

Amongst the number we may be allowed to point out as our favourites, "The Poet's Life," part the first, "The Poet's Death," "The Travellers," "Fortune makes Wise," "The Betrothing," "The Witches' Sabbath," and "The Revolt in the Cevennes." The last-mentioned story, borders on the historical species of Scott, of whom our author has most unjustly said, "It is surprising how little he wants to be a poet, but how much that little outweighs all he is."

Tieck continues to reside at Dresden, where the theatre, which is under his management, does him infinite credit, and where his evening readings of his own and other works (often of Shakspeare), are the delight of all who are fortunate enough to be admitted to hear them.

Principal Works of Tieck. Abdallah (1795). William Lovel (1796). Popular Legends (*Volksmärchen*) (1797). Sa-

tirical Dramas (1798). Phantasies on Art (1799). Sternbald's Wanderings (1798). Translation of Don Quixote (1799-1801). Lyrical Poems (1800). The Emperor Octavian (1804). Geneviève (1804). Phantasus (1814). The Pictures (1822). The Travellers (1823)*.

It is difficult to determine, whether the early enthusiasm of Tieck on the subject of art was originally his own, or whether it was not, to a great extent, imparted to him by his youthful friends. Certain it is, that amongst the latter there were several equally devoted with himself to the study of the painters of the German and Italian middle ages, and equally impressed with the idea of imbuing the fine arts with the spirit of Christianity. First and foremost amongst these, stands Henry William Wackenroder, who was born at Berlin in 1772, and who died there, 1797. Few have shown a zeal like his in the execution of an abstract purpose. A religious fervour pervades all he has written; and lends the most glowing colours to the pictures of his imagination. His principal work is his "Effusions of a Monk devoted to Art," but he also contributed to several productions of Tieck. Probably, he took the lead of the latter in their common direction. Their joint operations were loudly hailed, and eagerly responded to by the German artists at home and abroad. Winkelman and Greece were forgotten for Durer and his pupils, and for the school of Raphael. As is always the case with the young, on the occasion of sudden changes, they were guilty of extravagancies. They became, some of them, bigots and fanatics, and many of them rendered themselves ridiculous by adopting the garb as well as imitating the spirit of the middle ages. The elder German artists regarded, at first, this wild intoxication with silent pity, and allowed its earlier outbreaks to pass unheeded; but they did not fail, ultimately, to register their protest against it. And, at last, Goethe inflicted on the new system, already verging towards its decline, a mortal blow, in a paper entitled, "On the Christian,

* "The Old Man of the Mountain," "The Lovecharm," and the "Pietro of Abano," have been translated, in one volume, 1831. In the collections of "German Romances," published by Roscoe and Carlyle, will be found some of his tales. "Fermer the Genius," has been recently published in the English language at Brunswick.

Patriotic, new German Art," published in the second number of his periodical, "Art and Antiquity."

Nearly the same relation in which Wackenroder stands to Tieck the artist, Novalis bears to Tieck the poet. He shared the love of the latter for mystery and symbol, and the object of his literary endeavour appears to have been to erect literature into a kind of religion. In his eyes all is wonder, and the most wonderful of all is that daily life which we are accustomed to consider vapid and monotonous. It suffices for him to touch upon an ordinary circumstance, and it assumes an infinite significance. He did not live long enough to finish his principal work, so that we can hardly define his object, though we may indicate the direction he was taking. This, as may be presumed, was not towards a recognition of our conscious powers and reasoning faculties as the highest elements of our nature, but rather the contrary. He was born amongst the antipodes of the sceptical world. He rather loved to believe than sought to doubt. He preferred to base his system upon the unchangeable groundwork of our nature, rather than to support it merely on those secondary powers, the active existence of which mainly depends on cultivation, and the exercise of which must always be exposed to the influence of error. To the Rationalists and Indifferentists with whom Germany abounds he was not only naturally averse, but actively opposed. Towards Goethe his bearing was always inimical, and to his "Wilhelm Meister," he would fain have opposed the emotions of a living and a loving faith.

Novalis was the assumed name of the Baron von Hardenberg, who was born in 1772, and who died in 1801. His life was short, restless and unfortunate. The premature death of a lady he deeply loved, hastened his own. After his decease, his works were published in two volumes by Frederick Schlegel and Tieck; the most remarkable are "Heinrich von Ofterdingen," an unfinished romance displaying all the mystical peculiarities of its author, clothed in a simple and singularly beautiful style, and his "Hymns to the Night," remarkable for their devout sublimity.

We have now concluded our notice of the men who founded

that which has been called the Romantic School in Germany. We have alluded to the reaction to which it owed its origin, and we have described the characters and labours of its principal chiefs. It has been seen that its actual existence, as an active literary body, lasted but for a very short space of time. The founders, however much of its character they might subsequently retain, soon separated, and each took his peculiar path.

Frederick Schlegel turned to philosophy, diplomacy, and Romanism, and his latter years were only reminded of his earlier pursuits and predilections by a dedication of Tieck, in which the latter commemorates his ancient admiration of the drama of "Geneviève." We can well imagine that the few days which these celebrated men spent together, previously to the sudden death of one of them, must have discovered to them the immense distance which separated them. The one had become more than ever devoted to the Church of Rome, from which the other had not only gradually withdrawn himself, but towards which he would seem to have taken up an offensive position. Of the elder Schlegel, Tieck must now speak as a merely personal friend, who has long left him for pursuits to which he is an utter stranger. He, himself, as we have seen, became soon unfaithful to his early character, and gradually deserted it for an opposite one*. But, whatever became of the men, their works effected a revolution, of which most evident marks are visible in the literature of the present day. They kindled a spirit with which others were inspired, though they neglected it, and every author of eminence who has appeared in Germany, during the present century, is, in some degree, their scholar.

Two men, the tendency of whose works is analogous to that of the Romantic School, and who have since flourished, are Achim von Arnim and Clemens Brentano. They are generally classed together, from their having both affixed their names to a collection of ballads, entitled "The Boy's Wonder-Horn." These songs, which bear the genuine impress of the German national character, gave a new direction to lyrical poetry. The subsequent works of these authors were prose-fictions, which never

* See his *Novelle*, "The Witches' Sabbath."

attained any great popularity. Arnim deals in the horrible and fantastic; Brentano in the eccentric and humorous. In the works of the former, for instance in the "Countess Dolores," and "Isabella of Egypt," there are scènes of the wildest and most extravagant description. We will instance one from "Isabella." It presents us with four persons travelling together in a carriage to celebrate a wedding, at Buik in Belgium; they are, an old gipsy, who is at the same time a witch; an individual who is called a *Bärenhauter* (from *bärenhaut*, a bearskin, forming his dress), who perpetually shivers with cold, and is not a *bonâ fide* living being, but a corpse which has deserted its grave to earn a few ducats, by engaging itself for seven years as a servant; the third passenger is a Golem, *i. e.*, a figure of clay, to all appearance a beautiful woman, on whose forehead is written in Hebrew letters the word Truth, and who falls to dust as soon as this word is erased; finally, we have the field-marshal Cornelius Nepos, who is no relation to our classical acquaintance of that name, and who, indeed, is no other than the root mandrake, which Isabella of Egypt had plucked underneath a gibbet, and which had transformed itself under her hands into a horrible dwarf. The imagination of Arnim, whilst giving birth to these monstrous creations, seems in no state of violent excitement. The tenour of his story is as calm, as if it breathed the most ordinary subjects. He conjures up Death and his train of gloomy horrors, as if he only required their presence to become more sportive and simple than a child. For him life and the present have no charms; he flies to the grave of the past, and warms in the embrace of death.

The style of Arnim is masterly, and there are parts of his compositions which are perfect, but taken as a whole they are incongruous, and the impression they leave is unsatisfactory. His critical opinions were the same as those of his friend Brentano, together with whom, some thirty years ago, he edited a periodical at Heidelberg, which was the terror of Voss and the Rationalists. Arnim attached himself decidedly to none of the religious parties in Germany. Brentano, on the contrary, belongs to the Catholic propagandists, and is most zealously

devoted to the cause of the Romish church. Of late years, indeed, he is become more theological than literary. He has spent several years of his life in taking down the revelations of a Westphalian nun, who is reported by the Catholics to have been favoured with a miraculous share of divine inspiration. He is a great advocate of the Catholic sisterhood at Coblenz, which is celebrated for its simple piety and exemplary self-denial. Brentano spends his days at Frankfort, often travelling to Munich, the head-quarters of German Catholicism. The youth of his ultra-Romish sect celebrate him as one of the first German poets. They assert that what he has published, though avowedly of the first order, will bear no comparison with many of his works still in manuscript. According to them, he towers infinitely above Tieck, who has deserted his better self and sunk to mediocrity. He is destined, they say, to usher in a new poetical era, and to recall the imagination from profane excursions to spiritual and sublime pursuits.

Brentano has not cared to do much to verify these predictions. From that which he has published, however, we are far from withholding its meed of praise. His principal poem, "The Foundation of Prague," embodies the spirit of a poetical and heroic age. His comedy of "Ponce de Leon," contains, perhaps, more real wit than any of which Germany can boast. In some of his tales, as in the "History of the good Casperl and the beautiful Nannerl," there is a touching simplicity, combined with a pathos which invites repeated and never-tiring contemplation. Others, as "The Three Wehmüller, or Hungarian National Faces," abound in rich descriptions and comical incidents. In some, again, as in "The Three Nuts," the tragical is mysteriously blended with the humorous, and the tears which they summon forth are accompanied with involuntary smiles. Finally, that Brentano is a poet of high rank, can be doubted by no one who has perused even his most unpretending productions; a few verses, for instance, which he wrote, some years ago, in aid of a charitable purpose, contain a figurative picture of dawning day, which in its peculiar style has, perhaps, rarely been equalled.

We now pass to two classes of authors, who have written works

analogous in character or tendency to those of the Romantic School. The first is composed of men who only occasionally, or for a short period of their career, devoted their attention to literature. Amongst these we may particularise Schleiermacher, Görres, and Steffens.

Schleiermacher was the translator of Plato, and in his early study of the Greek philosopher was associated with Frederick Schlegel. Their friendship appears to have been of the warmest kind. When the latter published his obnoxious story, "Lucinde," the former wrote letters in "The Athenæum," praising and illustrating it. Schleiermacher was born at Breslau, in 1768, and died at Berlin, in 1834. It is foreign to our immediate subject to enumerate his theological works.

Görres and Steffens are friends of Tieck and the Schlegels, but their works are rather of a political and philosophical, than of a literary character. Görres was an enthusiastic politician during the war against the French, and was called by the Parisian journalists, *la cinquième puissance*. Since that time, he has joined the Catholic Propagandists, and is become a religious mystic. He is now Professor at Munich, where he sometimes lectures on Universal History, but is said never, even at the end of the session, to have arrived further than an account of the Flood,—such matter does his imagination afford for a description of the antediluvian world. Amongst his literary productions, may be instanced his "Account of Popular Legends," and his contributions to the Heidelberg periodical of Arnim and Brentano. His political writings, for which he was proscribed in Prussia, are, "Germany and the Revolution" (1819), and "Europe and the Revolution" (1821). His persecution was unnecessary, for his writings were too abstract, and verged already too much towards the mystical, ever to find readers amongst the people. Görres has written on various departments of natural philosophy, and is well acquainted with the Persian language and literature. He was born at Coblenz, 1776, and the most remarkable event of his life was his mission to Paris in 1799, the object of which was the junction of the provinces on the left bank of the Rhine with France. He returned to Coblenz without

having been able to obtain an audience of the First Consul on the subject.

Steffens was born in Norway at Stavanger, in 1773, but has lived more than forty years in Germany. His attention was at first directed to metaphysics and natural philosophy. He studied under Werner at Freiberg, and afterwards gave lectures himself on geology. At the time of the liberation-war, he combated in the cause of his adopted country both with the pen and the sword. At the conclusion of the war, he wrote works of a somewhat similar tendency to those of Görres. The most remarkable of these is his "Considerations on the present Time, particularly with respect to Germany." Steffens has experienced a great number of religious changes and conversions, of which he has always duly informed the public. He never, that we know of, went over to Romanism, but he has been several times dissatisfied with Protestantism, until he has again succeeded in moulding it to meet his altered views. One of his most noted tracts on the subject of his religious experience is entitled, "How I again became a Lutheran, and what my Lutheranism is." Of late years Steffens has followed in the track of his friend Tieck, as a writer of tales (*novellen*). He is more religious than the latter, and his object appears to be more polemical and profound. But though his style and the spirit of his stories are often more welcome to our hearts than those of Tieck, we cannot praise their execution. His details are disjointed, and there is often something forced and stiff in his descriptions; the precise nature of his object, too, is often extremely doubtful. His principal *novellen* are "Malcolm," "Walseth and Leith," and "The Four Norwegians." Steffens is at present Professor at Berlin, and is one of the most remarkable of the German philosophical Pietists.

To describe the relation in which the last-mentioned writers, and, indeed, the Romantic School generally, stand to Schelling and the modern German philosophy, would lead us beyond our limits, and belongs, indeed, rather to a philosophical than a literary history.

The second of the two classes of authors, of whom we made mention above, is composed of men who devoted themselves exclu-

sively to literature, but whose success has not been of the highest order. Of these we may enumerate Henry von Kleist, the Baron de la Motte Fouqué, and Francis Horn. Kleist was born in 1776, and died by his own hand, 1811. Since his death, his works have been collected by Tieck, and published with a critical introduction, and memoir of their author. There can be no doubt that Kleist was a man of genius, but his restless character, and the unfortunate circumstances in which he was placed, prevented him from fully developing it. His principal production, "Catherine of Heilbronn," a dramatic poem, is an original conception, and is executed in a masterly manner. It contains a beautiful picture of love in its simplest, meekest form, enduring the rudest trials, and remaining true to itself to the last. The "Tales" of Kleist surprise the English reader, by presenting qualities to which one is quite unaccustomed beyond the Rhine. They are divested of all reflection, speculation, and discursive dialogue. The author seems to be in the situation of a reporter, who is in want of space even for a succinct detail of important facts. The current of the narrative is so rapid and strong, that the reader is irresistibly carried to the end. Some of these stories are historical; "Michael Kohlhaas," for instance, is a true and stirring picture of the Lutheran times. Others would seem mere anecdotes, if the skill of the narrator and his knowledge of human nature did not render even the slightest incident of importance. The style of these productions is terse, nervous, clear, and perfectly original.

Frederic Baron de la Motte Fouqué is the nephew of the celebrated general of the same name, who served under Frederic the Great; he was born at Berlin in 1777. He was destined for a military career, and bore arms in the early Prussian campaign against the French revolution. Afterwards, he devoted himself to literary pursuits, under the auspices of the elder Schlegel, but in the eventful year 1813, he again exchanged the pen for the sword. His principal productions are romances, in which his leaning towards the feudal times, and desire to recall them, are very evident. But as an author, he is too tedious and prolix to exert a strong influence over the public. The style and execu-

tion of his story of "Undine" are graceful, and the "Magic Ring" is original*.

Francis Horn, a critic and writer of fiction, resides at Berlin. He is a man of considerable acquirements and commendable industry; his style is agreeable, but the general character of his writings is tame.

We shall now treat of several authors, whom we shall class together, not from their having formed a school, but from their having trod the same path. We allude to German writers of a humourous character, or of a decidedly satirical tendency. In the literary history of the last century, three figure in this category; namely, Thümmel, Hippel, and Lichtenberg†.

Thümmel was born at Schönfeld, near Leipsic, in 1738, and was educated at the university of the latter town. He subsequently became, first, privy-councillor, and then minister of the duchy of Coburg, but retired from public life so early as 1783. He died in 1817. His first production was a comic epic, but the work with which his fame is identified, is his "Journey in the Southern provinces of France, in the years 1785 and 1786." This, which is a work of fiction, and which contains scenes of considerable humour, would be much too tedious for our present public. Its author, however, deserves praise as having been one of the first German writers, who eschewed the pedantry and stiffness which had hitherto characterized the national literature.

Hippel was born, 1741, in East Prussia, and died, 1796, at Konigsberg. He was an eccentric character, of powerful mind, original humour and singular habits. He is chiefly remarkable as a humourist, but from his polemical standing as a scholar of Kant; and from the obscurity in which he sometimes chooses to involve both his subject and the end he has in view, the circulation of his works has never been commensurate with his literary fame.

Lichtenberg was born, 1742, at Over Ramstadt, in Hesse-Darmstadt. At the town of Darmstadt, where he was sent to

* His "Undine" and the "Magic Ring" have appeared in an English form.

† Some specimens of his "Illustrations of Hogarth" have appeared in "Blackwood's Magazine." The son of this remarkable man fills, at London, a diplomatic post from the Court of Hanover.

school, his talents and industry attracted the attention of the sovereign, who took him under his protection and supported him. In 1763, we find him at Gottingen, commencing his astronomical studies. He shortly became Professor at the University, and, as such, made two or three visits to London, about the year 1770. His acquaintance with England and English literature was very extensive, and contributed greatly to mould his literary character. He took great interest in our theatre, on which, and its hero, Garrick, his letters are very interesting. In 1773, he wrote a witty attack on Lavater, which did not, however, prevent him from becoming, subsequently, the friend of the physiognomist. About the same, he engaged in a literary quarrel with Zimmerman, who returned his sportive satires with virulent abuse. Lichtenberg was a man of most varied attainments. His proper province was natural philosophy, in many departments of which, particularly in the science of electricity, he has made important discoveries. Philology, also occupied a share of his attention, for we find him in 1781 attacking Voss, on the defects of his theory of Greek pronunciation. His most celebrated work, and that on which his fame as a humorist is chiefly grounded, is his "Complete Explanation of Hogarth's Copper-plates," in which he has fully entered into the spirit of our artist. He died, February 24, 1799.

The principal humourists of whom Germany has had to boast during the present century, are Jean Paul Frederic Richter, Hoffman and Chamisso. Richter, commonly called Jean Paul, was born at Wunscedel, near Baireuth, March 21, 1763. He received the rudiments of his education at Hof, near his native place, and in 1780, he went to study at the University of Leipsic. He was originally intended for a clergyman, but shortly after the commencement of his academical career, he neglected his theological pursuits, and devoted himself to literature. His father, whose pecuniary means were very limited, dying young, he was subject to much anxiety and embarrassment, particularly on account of his widowed mother, to whom he was tenderly attached. It was with great difficulty that he obtained, as an author and tutor, sufficient money for both their support. In

1790, he accepted the office of schoolmaster, at a small place called Schwarzenbach. It was here that he made those important studies on the infant character, and on the gradual development of the mind, the results of which enrich his later works. The events of the life of this celebrated author are few and unimportant. In 1794, he changed his residence at Schwarzenbach for Hof, whence, at the latter end of the last century, he made a journey to the North of Germany, where, his fame having already preceded him, he experienced the most gratifying reception. He married in 1803, and settled at Baireuth, where he died, November 14, 1825.

The character of Richter, like that of his writings, was compounded of the sentimental and the humourous. He had the heart of a woman and the head of a philosopher. No human being ever felt more profoundly, but none ever submitted his feelings to a closer analysis, or speculated upon them with greater freedom. The susceptibilities of Jean Paul were not temporary and evanescent, but permanent and grounded in the very essence of his nature. His affections were always alive; his heart was always warm; his whole life was one strenuous outpouring of inborn love. This same heavenly quality pervades his humourous as well as his sentimental scenes. He has a kind smile for those follies and weaknesses inherent in our nature, which he would shame by exposure, but not shock by rudely attacking. Sometimes he treats even with affection those old foibles of our human kind, which have accompanied it from its earliest date, and of which the most distant future will hardly see it divested.

Unfortunately, the conceptions of Jean Paul are not executed in a manner worthy of them. His style has often been animadverted on, but never, we think, sufficiently censured. The plans of his works are often strangely incongruous, loosely followed out and capriciously interrupted. His dictionary is about twice as large as that of any other German classic, but he is not so essentially difficult as intentionally obscure. He drags in similies out of the abstractest sciences, and is repeatedly guilty of the most uncalled-for digressions. For these reasons, though he has been very popular in Germany, his fame has never been acknow-

ledged by the learned. Schiller, for instance, seems to have regarded him as an unaccountable being, with whom he could have little fellowship, and whom it was difficult properly to understand. Goethe barely acknowledges his genius, and then hastens to censure his wilful neglect of it. The critics by profession passed him over, for the most part, unnoticed. For the causes above-mentioned, the popularity of Jean Paul has of late years declined in Germany, and he can never become a favourite abroad*.

Principal Works of Richter. Greenland Trials (1783). Selection from the Devil's Papers (1788). Hesperus (1794). Quintus Fixlein (1796). Biographical Recreations under the skull of a Giantess (1796). The Campaner Valley, or the Immortality of the Soul (1798). Titan (1806). Katzenberger's Journey to the Bath (1809). Levana, or a Theory of Education (1807).

Hoffman was born at Königsberg, January 24, 1776. He was a lawyer by profession, and was appointed in 1808, assessor in the government district of Posen. In 1803, he visited Warsaw, in some official capacity, but the invasion of the French in 1806, finished his career in that city. In 1816, he was promoted to the rank of counsellor in the court of judicature of Berlin, where he died July 24, 1822. From his youth he devoted his leisure hours to the study of music. His productions are a farrago of the humourous and the horrible. To some of them, the reader is at a loss which of the two characters to affix, there is something so ludicrous in the terror they sometimes inspire.

The original tendency of Hoffman's character seems to have been towards the comic, and that he cultivated this vein with great success, is fully shown in his "History of Master Flea," and "The Confessions of the Cat, Murr." In other works, as in the "Night-pieces," and the "Devil's Elixir," the terrible is the almost exclusive feature, and is portrayed with wild force and in the strongest colours. The genius of Hoffman was convulsive,

* Some single tales and specimens have been published in an English form: as in the collections of "German Romance," "The Linguist," and some periodical works. Those who combine in one idea the writings of Burton and of Sterne, will form no bad conception of the good Richter.

and his temperament unhappy. The discord of his nature he increased by satisfying its cravings for undue excitement. He became the victim of his own imagination, and was himself appalled at the terrors which it conjured up at his beck. At last, his creations became nothing but caricatures, and his mental vision diseased and distorted. The intemperate habits in which he finally indulged hastened his death, which was brought about by a nervous disease, in the fifty-fourth year of his age*.

Chamisso is a Frenchman by birth, who emigrated in his childhood to Germany. He was born at the castle of Boncourt, in Champagne, 1781. During the war against France, he entered the Prussian service, and bore arms against Napoleon. In 1815, he accompanied young Kotzebue in his journey round the world, and was absent three years. He resides at present at Berlin. Chamisso's proper character is that of a botanist and naturalist generally, but his book, "The strange history of Peter Schlemil, or the Man without a Shadow," has earned him literary fame. The conception of this story is original, and the execution ingenious. It belongs to a class of productions little cultivated in our practical age. It is the offspring of an imagination, which has no evident aim, except the pleasure of creating. No critic, that we have heard of, has succeeded in fastening a moral on this singular fiction†.

The German dramatists since Schiller, have followed two directions; both of which may be traced to his example. The one is a modern adaptation of the fatalism of the ancients, which is what he attempted in the "Bride of Messina." Several writers have followed him in this line, and have been more successful with the public, though not with the critics. We may instance here, the dramatic labours of Werner, Müllner, and Grillparzer. One of Werner's most remarkable works, is "The

* The "Devil's Elixir" has been well translated into English, and is a work that will delight the lovers of the Supernatural Romantic,—belonging to the class of "The Monk," by Lewis, and "Melmoth," by Maturin. It abounds in the fiercest transitions from comedy to melo-drama, and contains many happy descriptions, and burning expressions.

† It has been translated by Dr. Bowring, but under the name of a wrong author, De la Motte Fouqué being substituted on the title page for Chamisso.

24th of February," so called from that day having been ever fatal to a family, three members of which, a father, mother, and their son, form the *dramatis personæ*. Werner was a man of remarkably eccentric character, and extremely fickle in his belief. He was first a strenuous Protestant, and as such, wrote his "Martin Luther, or the Consecration of Power," in which the rude character of the Saxon monk is invested with the dignity of a heavenly mission. Catholicism palls before him, and all their cherished prejudices desert its devotees. Catherine of Bora, the nun, who at first abhors his very name, no sooner beholds him, than she finds herself at once converted to Protestantism, and destined to be his wife. But scarcely had Werner written this remarkable drama, that he himself became a Catholic, and as if to atone for his former heresy, entered a religious order. His subsequent works have the same tendency (but in a more extravagant degree) as those of Frederic Schlegel, and the more decided Catholics of the Romantic School. To promote the progress of the papal religion was now the grand object of all he wrote. This is very evident in his "Sons of the Valley," in which a most enchanting picture is drawn of the order of the Knights Templars. But parts of this, as well as of his other principal drama, "The Cross on the East Sea," are so extremely mystical, that they ordinary comprehension. Werner died in 1823.

Müllner is chiefly known by his tragedy of "Guilt," the most celebrated of its class of dramas. These may be easily defined; their dialogue is lyrical and harmonious, and gives great scope to histrionic declamation; their catastrophes are brought about by decrees of fate, and are generally of an appalling nature, calculated to produce a solemn theatrical effect.

At the time Müllner's high-sounding verses were first published, they were always on the lips of the German youth, and his bold figures were universally admired. How often have the following lines from the tragedy of "Guilt" been enthusiastically quoted!

> It is clear that Hell is open,
> And its lurid reflection
> Gleams through the night,
> So that the paths are visible,
> Which the devil treads on earth.

Müllner appeared as a poet late in life, and his education was unfavourable to his literary progress; his early studies had been devoted to law and mathematics. This accounts for his forced dignity, and laboured style; and for his want of genuine simplicity. From 1820 to 1825, he edited the "Morgenblatt," where his critical sarcasm created him a host of enemies. He died in 1829.

Grillparzer merely deserves mention as a successful writer of this school. His most noted plays are "The Ancestress," and "Sappho."

Of the dramatists who followed the general system of Schiller, Koerner is the most remarkable. But his genius was rather lyric than dramatic, and his heroes instead of being tragically pathetic, are often only sentimentally weak. The most valuable of his productions were songs breathing a fiery spirit of patriotism, and hatred to foreign oppression, published under the title of "The Lyre and the Sword." He was killed in the Liberation-war, in his twenty-third year, and his memory was long held sacred by the youth of his time.

Among the latest writers for the German stage, appear Houwald, Auffenberg and Raupach, but none even of their most popular tragedies can lay claim to distinguished merit.

The most famous lyric poets of whom Germany at present boasts, are Uhland, Schwab, Rückert, and Count Platen. Chamisso, too, of whom we made mention as a humourist, has also distinguished himself in this character.

Uhland is celebrated for the melody of his verse and the simplicity of his style. His muse is angelically pure, and there is a sweet melancholy in his strain, in which he sometimes indulges so far, as to have incurred the charge of effeminacy. Goethe expressed an opinion, that the constitution of his muse was consumptive. His dramas have not been very successful. He is said to be now engaged in preparing a work on the Minnesingers and Troubadours.

Schwab, like Uhland, his friend, is a Suabian, and is a successful follower of the latter. In conjunction with Chamisso, he now edits the "Muses' Almanack."

Count Platen is an excellent classical scholar, remarkable for the elegance and correctness of his German verse. His metrical proficiency exceeds that of all his predecessors, even of Schlegel himself. Some time ago he attracted great attention from the enthusiastic confidence with which he promised great performances.

Rückert is an Oriental scholar of vast acquisitions, whose metrical skill is equal to that of Platen, and who lays juster claims to originality. His versified translations from Eastern models, have excited astonishment even in Germany, and can scarcely be equalled in any other European language. Many of his original poems are as perfect in their sphere, as those of Uhland. But even the most celebrated productions of some of these poets, would probably disappoint the English student; the range of German lyric poetry is more limited than our own, and its construction is much more artificial; its character is often too ornamental, and its end and aim too exclusively artistic.

The political fever of modern times has not failed in Germany as in other countries, to affect the literature of the day. We shall briefly notice the man whose writings betray its influence in every page, and who may be said to represent the new German school—Henry Heine. It would be useless to deny the talent of this author, but it is perverted or unhealthy. The extravagance of his conceptions, though it may attract at first, is so forced and unnatural, as finally to disgust the reader. General extravagance we can admire, without seeking to chill it with criticism, for there is no assignable limit to the range of the imagination; but Heine is a comedian who is always conscious of the presence of the public. In all his works, there is a constant craving after effect. He is but a pseudo-poet—there where he is thought to have succeeded best, we hold that he has juggled most. Even the quaint pathos of his "Book of Songs," (which has found so many admirers,) we cannot but regard as a solemn mockery. His four volumes of *Reisebilder*, (Pictures of Travel,) contain many startling, and some witty antitheses, but nothing which leaves a permanent or gratifying impression. His works may furnish a little temporary amusement, but they are not perennially refreshing, like the genuine creations of genius. His book on

German literature contains, amongst many inaccuracies, some brilliant ideas, happily expressed; but he would seem to have no settled opinions on the subject of which he treats, and to write merely for the purpose of saying smart things, or of gratifying personal pique. On the French he has lavished flattery, which would be coarse from any lips, but which is unnatural from those of a German, and which, its objects will regard as no great compliment. The vanity of Heine is such, that perhaps no other writer of any age or country has indulged in such indefatigable admiration of himself. It is impossible to define distinctly the object of Heine's writings; their tendency sometimes appears to be republican, though at others, he asserts that he is a most devoted advocate of monarchy. The anti-christian tendency of his writings, is, however, very evident throughout, nor does he take much pains to conceal it.

It is unnecessary to mention some small disciples of a new little German school, who have chiefly distinguished themselves by a servile admiration of the French, and a propensity to sneer at their own country. One individual who is sometimes coupled with this group, is Boerne, lately dead, a critic, and the author of a work in several volumes, entitled "Letters from Paris," (1830-4,) the subject-matter of which was the politics of the day. The notoriety which this production has obtained, is rather to be attributed to its levity and boldness, qualities hitherto unknown in German political discussion, than to any intrinsic importance. Boerne, like Heine, was of Jewish extraction.

Thus, then, we are compelled to close our history of German literature with some of the least illustrious of its names. And to illustrate better the whole subject, we shall append a most important, however painful remark, emanating from Mr. Carlyle, one of its best informed as well as warmest friends.

"In Richter alone, among the great (and even sometimes truly moral) writers of his day, do we find the immortality of the soul expressly insisted on; nay so much as incidentally alluded to. This is a fact well meriting investigation and reflection, but here is not the place for treating it. The two venerable Jacobis belong in character, if scarcely in date, to an older school; so also

does Herder, from whom Richter learned much, both morally and intellectually, and whom he seems to have loved and reverenced beyond any other. Wieland is intelligible enough; a sceptic in the style of Bolingbroke and Shaftesbury, what we call a French or Scotch sceptic, a rather shallow species. Lessing also is a sceptic, but of a much nobler sort; a doubter, who deserved to believe*."

* German Romance, with Biographical and Critical Notices, vol. iii. p. 16.

CHAPTER VII.

HISTORICAL, POLITICAL AND SCIENTIFIC WRITERS OF GERMANY.

It would be an act of injustice to pass over in total silence many other names which have ornamented the literature of Germany in various departments less popular among general readers. To illustrate properly the merits of her scientific, historical, antiquarian, theological and statistical writers would demand an entire volume; we shall content ourselves in this place with a bare enumeration.

John von Müller stands at the head of the historians: his "Universal History" abounds in profound reflections, and is the fruit of elaborate research, produced in an eloquent and condensed form*: his History of Switzerland has not yet found a translator into our language, but is still more valued in Germany. The works of Heeren, Raumer, and of Niebuhr†, are well known amongst us. Luden, Leo, and Wachsmuth, are less familiar.

All nations assign the palm to German commentators on the ancient writers; to German philologists, lexicographers, etymologists and grammarians: in that country, indeed, the old classical taste finds its fondest home, and perhaps its last stronghold. Adelung, Boeckh, Grimm, Heyne, Von Hammer, William von Humboldt, Schveighäuser, Bekker, and Wolff, are illustrious members of the above class.

* Translated by Dr. Prichard, of Bristol, who is well known as an original writer. Its only blemish is the reserved, timid, and mysterious tone in which the author treats of religion.

† Nearly all the works of Heeren have been translated into English, and have been published by Mr. Talboys of Oxford, who has been very instrumental in clothing many standard German works in an English dress. Raumer's most important work (History of the Hohenstauffen) is promised in English, but has not yet appeared. Of Niebuhr's work on Rome there are two translations, of which the most complete is by Thirlwall and Hare. A pleasing life of the father of Niebuhr, —distinguished by his travels in Arabia, and written by the historian, his son,— has been translated by Stachle in one of the numbers of the "Library of Useful Knowledge."

The theological writers are not to be regarded with such cordial respect, because, however extensive may be their attainments, and however acute their criticism, it is impossible to deny that some of the most eminent, as well as many of the less conspicuous, have distorted and defaced the plain language of the New Testament, and have endeavoured to substitute in its place a spurious and feeble interpretation of Christianity,—destroying the force of its miracles, introducing natural causes in the room of supernatural agency, and degrading our Saviour from his divine birth. A few theologians still, however, maintain an unequal contest in favour of the genuine doctrines, which are the only solid foundation of virtue and happiness: and the best wish which a friend of Germany can cherish is, that this small but noble band may daily increase and extend its influence. Gesenius, Griesbach, Michaelis, Mosheim, Paulus, Schleiermacher, Tholuck and Wegschneider are some of the most remarkable names in the theological catalogue*.

In the cultivation of systematic geography and of statistics, the Germans will readily be acknowledged to be unrivalled. The great work of Busching set an example for future geographers, but it has nowhere been so ably followed as among his own countrymen, who have advanced in rapid succession. Hassel, Stein, Ritter, Crome, Meusel, Malchus, and Schnabel, are all classic names in geography and statistics. Burdach, Bickes, Cannabich, Casper, Finke, Hoffman, Julius, Lichtenstern, Memminger, Mittermaier, and some others, deserve most honourable mention also under this head.

Intimately connected and blended with the statistical and geographical writers are those who have devoted themselves to political philosophy and state-economy. To this class belong Schubert, author of the "Manual of the Universal State-economy of Europe," (*Handbuch der Allgemeinen Staatskunde von Europa,*) Poelitz; Von Rotteck and Welcker, who are publishing an extensive Dictionary of Political Science (*Staats-Lexikon*) at Altona; Malchus, Rau, and not a few others.

* More information on this head will be found in our chapter on Religion. The German divines have obtained more translators in the United States than in England.

Among the most distinguished authorities in jurisprudence are Savigny, Hugo, Bach, Gans, and Mittermaier; in no country is the philosophy of legislation more sedulously investigated, and in none are more learned lawyers to be found. It is true that the forms of trial, and the procedure of courts of justice, do not correspond in excellence with the character of the jurisconsults; but this circumstance is not peculiar to Germany. Everywhere we observe that improvements in the administration of justice seldom emanate from the professors of law, but are generally forced upon them by the progress of public opinion, and the gradual enlightenment of the public mind. Independently of this, the lawyer in Germany is more cramped by the pressure of political customs and institutions than in some other countries.

The most celebrated anatomists and physiologists of whom modern Germany has had to boast are, Lieberkühn, the three Meckels, Zinn, Wrisberg, Mayer, Walther, Sœmmering, Loder, Gall, Seiler, Weber, Blumenbach*, Rudolphi†, Tiedemann, Nitzsch, Purkinje, Treviranus, Carus‡, Burdach, Baer, Rathke, Otto, Müller§, Wagner. In the practice of medicine, Frank, Horn, and Hufeland‖ have distinguished themselves generally; Swediaur and Schmidt in treating of syphilitic diseases; Stuetz in catalepsy; Marcus, Hildebrandt, and Albers in fevers, particularly in typhus; Kreysig in diseases of the heart; Reuss and Kiefer in exanthematous disorders; Gölis in hydrocephalus¶, and Puchelt in diseases of the veins. The chief surgeons of modern times are Richter, Beer, Schmidt, Himly, Langenbeck, Rust, Beck, Walther, Von Graefe**, and Von Ammon.

* This illustrious veteran has always been the true friend of England. His works, which are equally conspicuous for their accuracy, condensation, and elegance of style, have been almost all translated into English. He may be considered as the father and almost the founder of modern natural history.

† The first part of his "Physiology," which is valuable especially for its bibliographical part, has been translated.

‡ The "Comparative Anatomy" of Carus has been translated by Mr. Gore, of Bath.

§ Whose "Physiology" has lately appeared in English, as well as that of Tiedemann.

‖ Well known in England by his "Art of prolonging Life," which Goethe, a genuine epicurean, pronounced to be the *Art of rendering Life tedious.*

¶ Translated by the late Dr. Gooch. ** A native of Poland.

It is barely just to declare that the German medical men are the most learned of all Europe in all which relates to the literature of their science. Nowhere are the preliminary examinations so severe, and in their extensive knowledge of languages they amply partake of the usual accomplishment of their countrymen. In the branches of forensic medicine, medical police, and ophthalmic surgery they stand at the head of their European brethren; and we shall probably not be far wrong in awarding to them the palm in theoretical pharmacy, in medical botany, and in dietetics. More than all others they have cultivated the obscure and unpromising study of animal magnetism. Hahnemann of Leipsic has founded a doctrine of homœopathy,—of which it is here sufficient to say that it does not rank among its followers a single distinguished name, and that it has utterly failed, when subjected to the statistical test.

Among the natural philosophers and natural historians may be pre-eminently ranked the names of Herschell, F. H. A. Von Humboldt, Gauss, Oken, Scheele, and last, but far from the least, Cuvier, who was born at Montbeliard, in the then duchy of Wurtemberg, and who received his education at Stuttgard.

CHAPTER VIII.

MODERN GERMAN ARTISTS.

Architects, Sculptors, Painters. Encouragement afforded to the Fine Arts at Munich by the King of Bavaria, and Reflections on the Results. Importance of affording free Access to Public Edifices and Collections. Music in Germany. The Drama.

PASSING over ancient art, we open the page of modern German architecture with a notice of Frederic Weinbrenner, who was born at Carlsruhe in 1766, and who died there in 1826. His style was rather heavy, and his imitation of the ancients not always successful: indeed, he was more remarkable as having founded a school which boasted of several men of talent, than for anything which he effected himself as an architect. Moller of Darmstadt, Burmtz of Frankfort, and Huebsch of Carlsruhe, were all his scholars. Moller is the architect of the theatre, and of the Catholic church in the form of a rotunda, at Darmstadt*.

A friend of Weinbrenner, Von Thouret, Professor at Stuttgard, was born at Ludwigsburg in 1766, and was intended at first for a painter. He was educated in Italy. It was to him that Goethe entrusted the completion of the palace and the erection of the theatre at Weimar.

The greatest names in the history of modern German architecture are those of Frederic Schinkel, a Prussian, born in 1781, and of Leo Von Klenze, now at Munich, born at Hildesheim, in 1784. They distinguished themselves advantageously from Weinbrenner and his scholars, by a more intimate comprehension of ancient art, and by a display of original and creative power; and they may properly be regarded as the founders of the modern German school of Architecture. Klenze is the more remarkable for his correctness and purity of style, Schinkel for his originality. Amongst the works of the former, are the Glyptothek at Munich, an admirable specimen of the Ionic

* Some of Moller's works have been translated into English.

order; the new Königsbau in the Florentine style; the All-Saints' chapel in the Byzantinian manner, and the Kaufhaus in the Venetian. He is at present engaged in the construction of the Walhalla. Schinkel was educated as a painter, and seems more disposed to copy from his imagination than from the ancients. He sometimes proceeds, however, to a certain degree in the spirit of the classic world, and of the middle ages, as in his Hauptwache at Berlin, and in his monument on the Kreuzberg: but his more remarkable edifices, such as the new Werder church, the Singing Academy, and the Museum, at Berlin, are in a style entirely his own.

A celebrated German architect of modern date was Von Fischer, Professor at Munich, who died young. Amongst his scholars we may enumerate Gaertner, who was made Professor of Architecture at Munich in 1820, and Superintendant of the Royal Porcelain Manufactory, and who built the Library and Ludwig's church there in the pure Byzantinian style; and Ohmüller, who was commissioned to erect a monument and school at Wittelsbach, the ancestral residence of the Bavarian royal family, in the old German style, to which of late years considerable attention has been paid. A work on that subject has been written by Moller, and a splendid one on the Cologne Cathedral by Boisserie. The Florinus church at Coblenz has been lately restored, and a new church at Treis built in the Gothic style by Von Lassaulx. Among the minor schools of architecture in Germany, we may mention that of Jussow at Cassel, in which Ruhl and Mueller of Göttingen were educated. Chateauneuf and Ludolf have distinguished themselves at Hamburg, where the former has erected the Exchange, and the latter, the Bank. Professor Thuermer, the architect of the Dresden Post-office, has gained, of late years, considerable reputation in Saxony. On the whole, the architectural art may be said to flourish now in Germany, particularly when we compare its present state with the low ebb to which it was reduced during the greater part of the last century*.

The oldest of the more celebrated German living sculptors are,

* In some recent numbers of the "Foreign Quarterly Review" will be found more elaborate information on German Architecture.

Dannecker, Schadow, and Ohmacht. Among the most remarkable works which the first has executed of late years are, an admirable figure of Christ*; a figure of Faith praying, for the monument of the Princess Ida of Oldenburg; and a statue of John the Baptist, for the Grecian chapel on the Rothenberg. Of his scholars we may mention, Distelbarth of Stuttgard, noted for his vases and bas-reliefs; Zwerger of Frankfort, for his statue of St. Mark, and of Ganymede, and his bust of J. H. Voss; and Wagner of Stuttgard, for his statues of Ariadne and Bacchus, his busts and bas-reliefs. Ohmacht is Professor at Strasburg, and has lately executed a bust of Klopstock for the duke of Oldenburg, and a marble statue of Hebe. The fruits of Schadow's recent labours are the statue of Luther at Wittenberg, and that of Blucher at Rostock.

Thorwaldsen, the Dane, has had several German scholars, of whom the most noted are, Von der Launitz, Freund, and Herrman. But there has, hitherto, been only one great school of sculpture in Germany, that of Schadow, to which Rauch and Tieck belong. Christian Rauch, Professor to the Academy at Berlin, is remarkable for the truth, grace and power of his execution. His works prove him to be a man of great penetration, and, at the same time, of an imaginative mind. He possesses the secret of giving a dignified effect to modern costume. He has recently executed busts of Zelter and Schleiermacher, a colossal statue of Frederic William I., at Gumbinnen, and a monument for Franke, the founder of the orphan-asylum at Halle. Amongst his other works are an admirable little figure of Goethe, but above all a monument to Queen Louisa of Prussia†, and to Maximilian Joseph, of Bavaria.

* The Christ of Dannecker is a colossal figure, in the possession, I believe, of the empress of Russia. It appeared to me one of the finest specimens extant of modern sculpture, breathing a solemn tranquillity, and a pensive benevolence very difficult to combine with noble dignity of demeanour.

† A worthy companion, in excellence of art, to the Christ of Dannecker. This admirable woman, no less the brave and patriotic queen, than the tender wife and mother, and one of the loveliest and most gentle of her sex, has never yet received, in foreign countries, the honour due to her memory,—and a hundred lives have been written since her time not half so deserving of commemoration. She reflects the highest lustre on the house of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and on the Prussian royal

Christian Frederic Tieck, Professor of Sculpture to the Academy of Berlin, was born in that city in 1776. This artist has studied nature profoundly, and is well versed in classic art. His execution is singularly perfect and harmonious. His Ganymede and his Shepherd are admirable works of art, and worthy of a Grecian sculptor. He has recently executed busts of the crown-princess, of Niemeyer, and of Milder the singer. Several scholars of the Berlin Academy have distinguished themselves in sculpture, as, for instance, the brothers Wichman and Rietschell.

The most noted sculptors at Munich, are Eberhard, Wagner, and Schwanthaler, who, however, have been far from attaining the degree of excellence which has earned such fame for the school of Berlin. Eberhard is most happy in religious subjects, as in his monument of the Princess Caroline, at Munich. Wagner, who is also an excellent painter, has been lately commissioned to execute a frieze for the Walhalla, the subjects of which are to be taken from the ancient history of Germany; he is one of the most learned of modern artists. Schwanthaler is principally celebrated for his reliefs. The principal sculptors at Vienna, are Zauner, whose chief work is a colossal statue of Joseph II., and Fischer, Professor to the Academy.

Raphael Mengs, F. G. Fueger, and Angelica Kaufman, German painters of the last century, have left few works behind them which merit the reputation they enjoyed amongst their contemporaries; possessed of talent, they seem to have been impatient of rules, and averse to study; and they deserted nature for an indefinite ideal, which had no foundation in truth.

Carstens, born in 1754, was the first to tread successfully the path which Winkelman had pointed out, and to seize the spirit of the classic world: unfortunately, he died so early as 1798.

family, of which she became the ornament: her surviving sister is the queen of Hanover. Mildness, purity, affability and simplicity, were the least brilliant, but the best of her qualities: and to complete her character, she was hated and slandered by Buonaparte. How beautiful, how touching were some of her latter words! "I shall not be named by posterity among celebrated women, but they who knew the troubles of our time will say of me, She suffered much, and with constancy; and may such be able to add hereafter, She gave birth to children who deserved better days, who tried hard to accomplish them, and at last succeeded." And they *have* succeeded.

Tischbein, the friend of Goethe, was rather a dilettante than a true artist; few of his works display intrinsic merit.

Koch, whose illustrations of Dante are excellent, followed in the steps of Carstens, some of whose unfinished pictures he completed.

Another worthy successor of the same artist was Wächter of Stuttgard, remarkable for the truth, power, expression, and harmony of his colouring. In his rich and diversified illustrations of Biblical and Christian subjects, he preserves a classic form. His principal paintings are, his Job, the Death of Socrates, the Burial of Christ, and Homer and the Muse of History.

John and Francis Riepenhausen of Göttingen, differed from the school of Carstens in their more ornamental execution, and in greater elegance of form: Raphael was their favourite master.

Other painters nearly of the same period were, Klengel, Grassi, Pochman, Petter, Krafft, and Vogel.

The Modern German School springs from the year 1810, and its principal supporters are Overbeck, Cornelius, the Veits, W. Schadow, and Scheffer. Its tendency is allied to that of the German artists of the middle ages; it addresses itself to the religious feelings of our nature, and prefers simplicity and force to ornament and grace.

Overbeck was first a pupil of Fueger, and then of Wächter; but the master to whom he has principally been indebted is Albert Durer. The study of the latter may be said to have converted him into a painter of the Romantic School. Overbeck's great altar-piece, the Entrance of Christ into Jerusalem, is now at Lubeck. He himself is living, at present, at Rome.

Cornelius, the boast of the Modern German School, was born at Düsseldorf, in 1787; he is now a resident at Munich. At the outset of his career, this artist sought for something more in painting than mere obedience to a set of technical precepts; he rejected empty forms, and became inspired with a new spirit. He regarded religion as the proper field of art, and the painters especially imbued with it, were those whom he fondly studied. The Academy of Arts at Düsseldorf owes to him its present eminence.

The colleagues of Cornelius, at Munich, are, Zimmermann,

Schnorr, Hess, and Schlotthauer. The first is Professor of Historical Painting, and has lately finished two large pictures, a Holy Family, and a John the Baptist.

Schnorr is, at present, engaged in decorating five rooms of the palace with pictures, the subjects of which are to be taken from the Nibelungen-Lied.

Schadow, the son of the sculptor of that name, is at the head of the school of Düsseldorf, which is noted for the originality and excellence of its oil-paintings: by some, it is considered as the best modern school of historical painting. He distinguished himself from the Romantic School at Munich, by a more delicate invention and a more finished execution, and by a greater leaning towards elegance of form. Amongst his principal works we may mention, Christ and his Apostles, Mignon, and Caritas. His most approved scholars are, Huebner, Hildebrandt, the now celebrated Lessing, and Bendemann.

The brothers John and Philip Veit, whom we enumerated among the founders of the Romantic School, were born, the former in 1791, the latter in 1793. They were both educated at Rome, where they were the constant associates of Cornelius and Overbeck. Philip is now at Frankfort, but the elder brother continues to reside in Italy.

The principal painters at Berlin are, Professor Wach, and his scholars, Duege, Henning, and Hopfgarten. This school is noted for its good execution, correctness of form, and harmonious arrangement. At Dresden, Peter Hess is famed for his battle-pieces.

The best modern German landscape painters are, Fries of Carlsruhe, Rottman and Morgenstern of Munich; Fearnley*, Schilbach of Darmstadt, Richter and Dahl of Dresden, and Schirmer and Ahlborn of Berlin. The most distinguished painters of animals are, W. Peter, at present at Rome, Kernz of Carlsruhe, Wagenbauer, Adam, and Schnitzler at Munich, Klein at Nuremberg, and Klueger of Berlin.

To the Germans, and particularly to Munich, is to be ascribed the invention of lithography, and the high degree of

* A native of Norway, at present established in London.

perfection to which this economical and most useful art has attained. While alluding to Munich, it is with the utmost gratification that we dwell upon the noble monuments which the present king of Bavaria has there raised to the fine arts. Without the pecuniary resources of more powerful sovereigns, he has accomplished more by judicious perseverance, and well-timed liberality, than any other monarch of our own time. But the lustre which he has thus conferred on his small capital, is not to be viewed merely as a matter of taste nor of sentiment; in a political, commercial, and moral point of view, he has enriched his country both for the present and the future. It has become the resort of strangers from all parts of Europe; its artists are obtaining a wide field for exertion; and Munich, from the rank of a third-rate city, is now rising to a level with the first. It was formerly only remarkable for its judicious institutions of a charitable nature, founded through the zeal of the Anglo-American Count Rumford; few travellers passed through it, and still fewer remained.

Let us not believe that commerce and manufactures are the only roads to civilization and opulence;—and, above all, let those who possess the treasures of the fine arts impart them freely to the public, and thus earn for themselves a more brilliant celebrity than that which attends on mere private acquisition;—while they sow in the universal mind around them a fruitful seed of refinement, springing up into innocent pleasures, and diffusing by its flowers the sweet odour of humanity.

Several individuals in our own country enjoy funds, no less abundant than those which have enabled King Louis, of Bavaria, to effect so much benefit, and they might thus confer on their respective neighbourhoods the same celebrity, the same attraction, and the same stimulus to industry;—and let them not be discouraged by the unjust sneers which are so often levelled at the people of England. Once freely and kindly admitted to galleries of the arts, to libraries, to cathedrals, to majestic edifices of every kind, and to parks and gardens, the humbler classes of England will prove that they can enjoy these indulgences with as much forbearance and decency as the natives of despotic states, and as

the inhabitants of those foreign cities in which an ever-vigilant and all-powerful police prevents almost the possibility of disorder. It is the *habit of exclusion* which tends to induce the very rudeness of which some fastidious persons are so fearful; once *accustom a people to partake*, and they will satisfy their appetite with moderation. But it would be difficult, I believe impossible, to show that the people of England *do* commit the abuses which are charged upon them. We have heard of none such at the National Gallery, nor at the British Museum, nor at the Museum of the College of Surgeons at Edinburgh, at which the admission is free to all. Signs of a kindlier sympathy, in this respect, are beginning to declare themselves among those who have the power of leading the way; we may mention a recent instance, in which the Cathedral of Norwich has been thrown open to the public daily, for one hour, at the time when it is not devoted to divine service; and the increased facility of admission to St. Paul's Cathedral. The recent formation of an association, composed of individuals of all parties, with the duke of Sussex as its president, devoted to the promotion of free access to public edifices, is a favourable omen.

To return to our more immediate subject. In the cultivation of that most delightful of all the fine arts, music, the Germans stand, by common consent, at the head of all the world. There the science and practice of this solace of life are carried to a perfection, and pursued to an extent, which it would be vain to seek in any other part of the globe. Those who, from old prejudices, expect to find a rival in Italy, will be grievously disappointed. In the village schools of Germany, singing is taught as a branch of education; a group of peasants, or a regiment of soldiers, will there execute choral music in a better taste than some of the professional choirs in other parts of Europe. In most of the large towns are academies, at which instrumental and vocal music are gratuitously, or almost gratuitously, taught. It forms the staple amusement of every bathing-place, of every public garden, of almost every society. Good music is sought and prized, from whatever quarter it may proceed,—not merely the composition and performance of noted names, not merely that

which is new, but the truly good of all times, climes, and persons, is estimated at its just value. I shall not pause to inquire how it happens that in the more southern parts of Europe, the pretended genial soil of melody, the true musical genius is comparatively so barren, and the taste and mechanism in proportion so scanty, and so partial; but, whatever may be the cause, not only is Germany the most methodical and the most learned, but she alone appears endued with the true enthusiasm, the full temperament of melody. To enumerate the great musical authors of Germany, would be to repeat a host of names familiar to all who honour sweet sounds; a small triumphant band will suffice, at the head of whom stand Handel, Gluck, Haydn, Mozart, and Weber, who have translated their art into a new language, pouring out at one moment rushing torrents of sublime eloquence, and at another gently gliding into the heart in sportive or murmuring streamlets.

As to the instrumental performers of Germany, their names abound in the catalogue of every orchestra and concert in Europe. Of great singers she has not been so fruitful, although many such have been born of German parents established in foreign countries; and I believe that the impediment of language, and the vogue of the Italian school, have contributed to keep others in obscurity. In our own time, Sontag and Schroeder Devrient have elevated the national claims to vocal distinction. Even in the sister art of dancing, which some may, from prepossession, infer to be uncongenial to the soil, there are some most successful candidates for fame, such as Heberlé and the two Elslers; and, in short, as Germany is the home of music, so also is it the only land in which, in these later and sadder days, the dance maintains its footing as a thoroughly national pastime.

A chapter on the fine arts of Germany ought not to be closed without an incidental allusion to the state of the drama in Germany. Of the merits of the chief dramatic productions we have spoken in the account of German writers; but the present age is not more favourable to original dramatic composition in Germany than in other countries. Throughout Europe we find that opera, musical farce and splendid decorations, are making

rapid strides, while tragedy and comedy live almost entirely on the past;—in all parts of Europe, also, we observe that the theatre is gradually less frequented by the higher classes, and more attended by the lower ones. This circumstance is readily explained by the increasing mental cultivation of both ranks: the higher find more pleasure in private society and in the bosom of their families, while the latter are attracted by the growing developement of their faculties and tastes to seek for new ideas and fresh pastimes. In Germany, however, the drama still retains a firm hold on all classes of society: it forms almost an integral portion of daily existence to a large mass of the population. Very many persons repair to the theatre almost nightly to dissipate ennui; and the amusements usually commence and terminate at an early hour. The German actors are chiefly remarkable for their industry and attention; carelessness is rare; all the details are carefully studied and represented. A tendency sometimes breaks out to a sentimental whine, or a nasal twang, which is more easy to understand than to describe; but this tone is not uncommon, also, in the national conversation. The German actors resemble the English rather than the French; they are energetic in tragedy, and can frolic in the broad humour of farce. But, on the whole, the warmest encouragement is at present afforded to opera, which is nowhere else so faithfully and so earnestly exhibited, and nowhere else so judiciously appreciated.

CHAPTER IX.

Chronological Outline of the Progress of Literature, Science, Art, and Civilization in Germany, from their early Periods to the present Time.

A. D.

273. The first vineries laid out on the Rhine.
370. Ulphilas translates the Bible.
700. The mines in Bohemia were discovered.
779. Tithes were instituted by Charlemagne, for the support of the clergy, churches, schools, and poor.
785. Germany is become a Christian country.
800. The laws of Charlemagne promulgated.
869. Ottfried, a monk at Weissenberg, introduces sacred music.
968. Silver-mines discovered in the Harz.
1016. Worms cathedral built.
1050. Commencement of the period of club-law (*Faustrecht*).
1167. The Freiberg mines discovered.
1180. The Vehmgerichte, or Secret Tribunal, established. The chivalric poetry of the Suabians flourished.
1190. Soldiers first paid by the emperor, Henry VI.
1248. Cathedral of Cologne built.
1260 The Hanseatic League holds its first diet at Lubeck.
1285. Cloth manufactory established at Nuremberg.
1300. Gunpowder discovered by Berthold Schwarz.
1302. Great linen manufactory established at Augsburg.
1318. Frauenlob of Mainz died, the first of the master-singers.
1331. The great fair at Erfurt established, for communication between Northern and Southern Germany.
1348. The first German university founded at Prague.
1360. Brandy imported by Frankfort merchants from Asia.
1361. Tauler, the great Dominican preacher in the German language, died.
1365. The university of Vienna founded.

A. D.

1380. The Cologne school of painting flourishes.

1409. First German apothecary's shop opened at Leipsic.

1415. Martyrdom of Huss.

1428. The Hanse fleet, of 280 ships and 12,000 sailors, governs the North Seas.

1440. Copper-plate printing discovered in Germany.

1450. Club-law superseded by absolute monarchy.
The art of printing discovered at Mainz *.

1483. Date of the German popular stories, Eulenspiegel and Reynard the Fox.

1485. Death of Agricola, the first professor of Greek at Heidelberg.

1486. The first censor appointed at Mainz by the archbishop.

1492. The Cathedral of Ulm completed.

1498. First great fair held at Brunswick.
Copernicus announces his system of astronomy about this period.

1516. The infamous sale of absolutions by Tetzel †.
Conrad Gessner born, the German Pliny, the first who formed a museum of natural history.
Watches were first made at Nuremberg about this time.

1517. Luther fastens the ninety-five Theses on the door of Wittenberg church.

1520. The German painters, Albert Durer and Oranach, flourished.

* The attempt to apply the printing from blocks to the production of books, which Gutenberg commenced at Strasburg, he continued at Mainz; and it is evident that about the year 1450 he had already prepared a number of engraved blocks, when, finding himself prevented by want of means from bringing his invention to perfection, he was about to renounce all further thought upon the subject; but he was enabled by the advice and pecuniary assistance of John Fust, a citizen of Mainz, to carry his long-cherished idea into effect.—(See the "Foreign Quarterly Review," April, 1837, for an interesting history of the invention of printing.)

† He was appointed to this Romish traffic by the pope, and carried it on during fifteen years;—he travelled through Saxony in a waggon, furnished with two large boxes, one of which was consecrated to the letters of indulgence, and the other was to hold the money which they were sold for. He offered absolution even for murder, perjury, and adultery.

A. D.

1524. The first Protestant university was founded at Marburg.
1530. The Augsburg Confession published.
Jordens, a mason at Brunswick, discovers a wheel for spinning flax.
1534. Luther finishes his translation of the Bible.
1541. Death of Paracelsus.
1553. The Jesuits make their appearance in Austria.
1555. Peace of Augsburg and toleration of Protestantism.
1571. Kepler born.
1576. Hans Sachs died.
1577. Rubens born at Cologne.
1592. First book-fair at Leipsic.
1614. Valentine Andrea, a native of Wurtemberg, founds the sect of the Rosicrusians.
1619. The bank of Hamburg established.
1624. Jacob Behmen died.
1630. The Hanse Towns cease to flourish.
1637. The thermometer invented by Drebbel.
1640. The Silesian poets, Opitz and Gryphius, flourish.
1650. The air-pump invented by Guericke of Magdeburg.
1651. Potatoes first brought to Berlin.
1669. Abraham von Santa Clara preaches at Vienna.
1670. Hoffmanswaldau and Lowenstein, the imitators of the Italian poet, Marini, flourish in Silesia.
1672. The pressure of the air illustrated by the two brass hemispheres invented by Guericke of Magdeburg.
1695. The Orphan Asylum at Halle founded.
Coffee first brought to Leipsic.
Lectures first delivered in the German language at Halle.
1708. Stahl, the professor of medicine, flourishes at Halle.
The great plague breaks out at Vienna.
1710. The porcelain manufactory of Meissen established.
1711. Leibnitz founds the Academy of Sciences at Berlin.
1722. Count Zinzendorf, the founder of the Moravian sect, becomes conspicuous.
1724. The poet Klopstock born at Quedlinburg.

A. D.

1732. Haydn, the composer, born.
1734. The composers, Handel, Bach, and Gluck, flourish.
1747. The Dresden gallery of paintings becomes remarkable.
1749. Goethe born at Frankfort.
1774. Werner publishes his Geognostic Theory of the Earth.
1781. Kant is distinguished for his metaphysical views at Königsberg.
1791. Mozart died.
1794. Fichte, a metaphysical philosopher, is professor at Jena.
1796. Lithography invented by Sennefelder.
1800. The German sculptors, Dannecker, Tieck, and Rauch, acquire celebrity.
1805. The death of Schiller.
1814. Violent disputes, particularly at Halle, between the Rationalists and Pietists, two religious parties.
1818. Commencement of the Prussian commercial league.

CHAPTER X.

LITERARY STATISTICS OF GERMANY.

The Modern Press. Enumeration of the chief Libraries, with estimates of their extent.

A MOST remarkable increase in the number of books published in Germany has taken place of late years, owing partly to the greater demand for German books in foreign countries, and partly to the tranquillity and prosperity of peace. Previously to the year 1814, the annual amount of works published in Germany is said to have been about 2000. This number has gradually augmented in the following proportion:—

In 1814, were published 2529 works; in 1816, 3197; in 1822, 4288; in 1827, 5108; in 1830, 5926; in 1831, 5508; in 1832, 6122; in 1833, 5653; in 1834, 6074*.

Each succeeding catalogue of the Leipsic Fair is more bulky than its predecessor. That of the late Easter Fair of 1837, forms a volume of 26 sheets, and contains 4353 new works, or new editions. Of these 429 were published abroad, leaving for Germany (including Switzerland, Hungary, and that part of Prussia not belonging to the German confederation) 3924. In the total number there are,

Books and pamphlets in the German language	3200
Books and pamphlets in the ancient languages	302
Books and pamphlets in living foreign languages	539
Novels	144
Plays	23
Musical Publications	42
Maps	103

Of the above, 239 are translations from foreign languages, (among the novels alone, 44) and 349 periodicals.

The whole were produced by 561 publishers, of whom Basse of Quedlinburg furnished 92 works, Reitzel of Copenhagen 82,

* See Strang's "Germany in 1831," vol. ii. p. 455.

Reimer of Berlin, 53, the house of Metzler in Stuttgard 46, that of Arnold in Dresden 45, that of Cotta in Stuttgard 44, Brockhaus of Leipsic 42, Friedlein of Leipsic 41, Voigt of Weimar 40.

The principal states of Germany contributed in the following proportions to the general amount:—Austria, 226 (in Vienna alone, 165); Prussia, 1151 (in Berlin 425); Bavaria, 469; Saxony, 669 (Leipsic alone, 556); Hanover, 106; Wurtemberg, 331; Baden, 156; the Hessian states, 141; Holstein, 40; the four Saxon duchies, 160; Brunswick, 45; Frankfort, 55; Hamburg, 123*.

The publications of 1834, have been in a more minute and illustrative manner classified. Of the entire 6074, 1327 come under the head of belles lettres and the fine arts, including 358 novels, 173 plays, and 109 works on music; 1141 under theology, including 550 sermons and devotional works; 880 under history, including 212 biographies, and 87 works on antiquities; 777 under politics and political economy; under medicine 639, including 81 on chemistry and pharmacy, 78 on the new homœopathic method of treatment, and 42 on veterinary medicine; 597 under philology; 400 under the natural sciences; 385 under geography and travels; 338 under technology; 285 under jurisprudence; 269 under philosophy and literature in general; 237 under domestic and rural economy; 217 under education; 212 under mathematics; 187 under military science and equitation; 175 under commerce and mining; 55 under forests and the chase; and finally, there were 200 of miscellaneous contents.

We perceive that the number of new publications was formerly much greater in Germany than in France, from the following comparative number of books published in the two countries.

In the Years	In France.	In Germany. At Easter.	In Germany. At Michaelmas.
1814	979	1490	1039
1815	1712	1777	978
1816	1851	1997	1200
1817	2126	2345	1187

* From the "Foreign Quarterly Review," October, 1837 t—a mine of information, to whose past and present valuable numbers all readers must have recourse, who seek for copious details, and just criticism on German matters.

In the Years	In France.	In Germany. At Easter.	In Germany. At Michaelmas.
1818	2431	2294	1487
1819	2441	2648	1268
1820	2465	2640	1318
1821	2617	3012	985
1822	3114	2729	1554
1823	2687	2558	1751
1824	3436	2870	1641
1825	3569	3196	1640
1826	4347	2648	2056
	33,775	32,204	18,099
			50,303
		In France - -	33,775
		Balance in favour of Germany - -	16,528

Latterly, however, the French press appears to have gained some advance, as in 1828, when above 7000 publications are said to have been printed in France.

Our excellent "Foreign Quarterly Review" states, that the number of periodical works enumerated in the Leipsic catalogue for 1836, is 297. The names of 530 publishers are given in this catalogue. An Augsburg journal has lately affirmed, that on a moderate calculation, 10,000,000 of volumes are annually printed in Germany; and as every half-yearly catalogue contains the names of more than 1000 German writers, it has been assumed that there are now living in Germany, more than 50,000 persons who have perpetrated one or more books. The total value of all the books published annually, has been estimated at from 5,000,000 to 6,000,000 of dollars.

To illustrate the increase of the book-trade during the last hundred years, we may cite the fact, that Leipsic contained in 1722 only 19 bookselling establishments, and 13 printing-offices; while in 1836 it was in possession of 116 of the former, and 22 of the latter.

The following is a table of the principal German libraries, and of the size of each, according to different authorities. It is

curious to observe the discrepancies in the statements, on a matter which appears so easily susceptible of proof.

The Royal Library at Berlin, contains according to

	Volumes.	Manuscripts.	Pamphlets.
Schnabel	140,000	7,000	—
Hassel	160,000	—	—
Malchus	160,000	—	—
Bissinger	160,000	—	—
Guthrie, edited by Langlois	180,000	—	—
Arnati	190,000	—	—
Ebert	200,000	2,000	—
Schubert	220,000	—	—
Wachler	250,000	4,611	—
Zedlitz	3 to 400,000	7,000, and upwards.	

The Royal Library at Dresden contains, according to

	Volumes.	Manuscripts.	Pamphlets.
Schnabel	200,000	5,000	—
Ebert	220,000	2,700	150,000
Duchesne	240,000	—	—
Hassel	250,000	—	—
André	250,000	4,000	40,000
Malchus	250,000	4,000	100,000
Arnati	260,000	5,000	—

The Library of the University at Breslau contains, according to

	Volumes.
Stein	100,000
Hassel	115,000
Zedlitz	130,000 to 140,000
Wachler	200,000

The Library of the University of Göttingen contains, according to

	Volumes.	Manuscripts.	Pamphlets.
Arnati, about	200,000	—	—
Villenave	200,000	5,000	110,000
Stein	280,000	—	—
Bailly	240,000	5,000	110,000
Hassel	295,000	5,000	110,000
Wachler	300,000	—	—
Malchus	400,000	—	—

The Ducal Library of Wolfenbuttel contains, according to

	Volumes.	Manuscripts.	Pamphlets.
Schubert	100,000	—	—
Bailly	109,000	4,000	40,000
Stein	120,000	—	—
Hassel	190,000	—	—
Bissinger, more than	200,000	4,000	100,000
Arnati	200,000	10,000	—
Malchus	210,000	—	—

The Library of the University at Freiburg contains, according to

	Volumes.
Hassel	19,000
Malchus	30,000
Schubert	100,000
Stein	100,000

The Royal Library at Stuttgard contains, according to

	Volumes.	Manuscripts.	Pamphlets.
Arnati, more than	30,000	—	—
Ebert	130,000	—	—
Malchus	140,000	3,000	—
Plieningen	160,000	1,800	137,000
André	170,000	—	—
Bailly	170,000	—	—
Hassel	200,000	—	—
Stein	200,000	—	—

The Central, or Royal Library at Munich, contains, according to

	Volumes.	Manuscripts.
Dibdin	300,000	—
Ebert	300,000	9,000
Hassel	400,000	—
Malchus	400,000	—
Arnati, more than	400,000	—
Streit	400,000	8,000
Schnabel	400,000	90,000
Duchesne	500,000	—
Wachler	600,000	—

The following is the table which Mr. Balbi has constructed, with a view of showing the real contents of the principal libraries in Germany*.

	No. of Volumes.	No. of Manuscripts.
Royal Library at Munich - - -	540,000	16,000
Imperial ditto at Vienna - -	284,000	16,000
Royal ditto at Berlin - - -	280,000	5,000
Royal ditto at Dresden - -	260,000	2,700
University ditto at Göttingen - -	250,000	5,000
Ducal ditto at Wolfenbuttel -	200,000?	4,500
Royal ditto at Stuttgard - -	174,000	1,800
University ditto at Breslau - -	150,000	2,300
Ditto ditto at Munich - -	150,000	2,000?

The book-trade was thirty years ago in the hands of only 300 booksellers or publishers; at present there are more than 1000. Throughout the whole Germanic Confederation, there is one bookseller to 93,000 souls, but in Austria one only in 122,222. Saxony furnishes the greatest number of new publications, next Prussia, and then Austria, but Austria is far behind in point of numbers. The number of booksellers in London has been computed, we know not how correctly, at above 800†.

For further information connected with the subject, we must refer the reader to our two chapters on the "Censorship," and on "Newspapers."

* See his curious and elaborate dissertation, "Sur les Difficultés qu' offre la Statistique Comparée des Bibliotheques," in Berghaus's *Annalen*, for August, 1835. We understand with much pleasure, that this most laborious and highly-gifted statistician has been appointed to an office of importance by the emperor of Austria, who has displayed true sagacity in securing the services of this eminent Portuguese.

† See "American Almanack," for 1838, p. 99.

CHAPTER XI.

ON RELIGION IN GERMANY.

Rationalism. Supranaturalism. Theological Education. Constitution of the Church. Proportion of Ministers of Religion to the Population. Church Property. Church Patronage. Salaries of Clergymen who are not of the Established Church. Religious Sects in Germany:— The Moravians, Socinians, Mennonites, Pietists, Herrnhuters, Swedenborgians.

Of all the subjects treated of in this work, this is the one which I approach with the greatest diffidence; knowing well that I shall give heavy offence to many worthy clergymen in Germany, yet anxious to speak that which appears to me to be the truth on the most important of all topics. Impressed with an earnest belief, that, in proportion as a people departs from the Christianity delivered in the New Testament, it loses the straight road equally to public and to private happiness, I cannot avoid inferring that the new mode of interpreting the Scriptures which has sprung up in Germany, is the darkest cloud which lowers upon the horizon of that country. With an innate disposition to humility and reverence, the Germans have been conducted by some of their spiritual teachers to the borders of a precipice, one leap from which will plunge them into Deism. And, if we are to judge from the tone of many popular writings, from the feelings entertained by many towards the clergy, and from the spirit in which religious matters are often handled in society, we must anticipate, however reluctantly, that, not only in Germany, but in some other parts of Europe, the heaviest calamity impending over the whole fabric of society in our time, is the lengthening stride of bold scepticism in some parts, and the more stealthy onwards-creeping step of critical cavil in others*.

* If a statement contained in the "Gentleman's Magazine," for April, 1828, is correct, the doctrine of the Trinity has been omitted in the last Catechism published by the Church of Geneva, and the Church of Lausanne has protested against the Socinianism of the Genevese church. If I was rightly informed in Denmark, Rationalism is there also making some way.

Rationalism in Germany is of kindred origin to the sceptical philosophy which was so prevalent in France during the last century. The most notorious amongst its early professors were the *Aufklärer* (apostles of intellect), Nicolai and his friends, the contributors to the *Allgemeine Deutsche Bibliotheke*.

A Socinian interpretation of the Scriptures had been, it is true, long known before them, and indeed frequently advocated, but they were the first who earnestly and zealously sought to found on it a popular creed.

The *Allgemeine Deutsche Bibliotheke* was founded in 1766. But there were numerous theologians of that period, not immediately connected with its editors, who laboured in the same cause. Of these, the most eminent were Teller (*Lehrbuch des Christlichen Glaubens*, 1764), and Semmler, professor of theology at Halle, who is called the father of the modern Rationalists. The reckless boldness of Semmler raised him a host of enemies, who were, however, unsuccessful in preserving the public mind from the baneful effects of his doctrines. Moreover, he found efficient supporters in Jerusalem, in Eberhard, who denied the operations of grace, in Bahrdt, who first, specially, attacked the doctrines of the Trinity, and in Junghaus. But these, with the exception of Semmler and Bahrdt, though they agreed with the Rationalists of the present day in rejecting the essential doctrines of original sin, grace and redemption, were still not so far advanced in a negative career as the latter, inasmuch as most of them admitted that the Scriptures contain a positive and supernatural revelation.

Bahrdt was at the head of a sect called the Naturalists, the principal object of which was to explain away or deny the miracles.

The philosophy of Kant, which was very popular in Germany about the year 1790, was not without considerable influence upon the doctrines of theology. Tieftrunk, Schmidt, Ammon, Stäudlin, and Krug, were amongst the most zealous in enlisting it in the cause of religion. But its positions, that the invisible is not an object of conception but of belief, and that morality is the only test of truth, never obtained very general acceptation. The doctrines of the Rationalists had been long making progress, before they were

reduced to systematic order. The first to effect this were Röhr, now clerical superintendant of the grand duchy of Weimar, in his *Briefe über den Rationalismus* (1813), and Wegschneider, in his *Institutiones Theologicæ Christianæ Dogmaticæ*, first published in 1815, and which have since passed through more than ten editions. From the nature of these works it is clear, that the fundamental doctrine of modern Rationalism is, that the mission of Christ and the whole scheme of revelation were merely intended for our instruction in certain principles, the truth of which uninspired human reason, would alone, in process of time, have been able to establish. They consequently disclose to us the frightful fact, that all the essential doctrines of Christianity are unreservedly rejected by their authors. Besides the above-mentioned, the most noted German Rationalists of modern times, are Gesenius, the celebrated Hebrew scholar, De Wette, Schleiermacher*, whose symbolic system, though it assumed the appearance of Christianity, was far from including its essence, Bretschneider, Fritsche, and Paulus.

The Supranaturalists in Germany, are those who maintain the necessity and reality of a supernatural revelation, but who deny the doctrine of original sin. They also disbelieve in the existence of angels and demons. The most noted leaders of this party, are Storr, Reinhard, and Ammon, who have all given in more or less to the system of accommodation, *i. e.*, of seeking to explain away the wonders of revelation to the level of human reason.

Theological Education in Germany. In Protestant Germany, those who intend to enter the church, commence their education at the gymnasium, where they generally remain till their eighteenth or nineteenth year. Here they are taught Hebrew,

* Schleiermacher is thus characterized by Robinson, an American divine: "He seems to stand between the Rationalists and the Evangelical party, being, however, more distant from the former than from the latter. It was related to the writer by Harms, of Kiel, that he himself, and several of his acquaintances, had been brought from Rationalism by the logic of Schleiermacher; but not being able to rest in the position which he had taken, they had gone forward to embrace the evangelical doctrines."—A concise view of the Universities and of the state of Theological Education in Germany. By E. Robinson, Professor Extraordinary in the Theological Seminary at Andover.

and are instructed in the doctrines of religion, generally according to some theological compendium, of which there are so many for the use of students. In the lower classes of the gymnasiums, the historical parts of the Bible are read and explained. In Wurtemberg, there are six theological seminaries, of which four are Protestant, and to which all young persons intended for the church are sent*.

The Catholic clergy throughout all Germany are educated in seminaries. From the gymnasium or seminary, the student passes to the university, and it is not generally, till this period, that he definitively chooses his profession.

In Saxony, Baden, Hanover, and most other German states, the student is allowed to enter under what professor he pleases, and is also permitted to spend some portion of his academical career at a foreign university. But in Prussia, Hesse, and Wurtemberg, both the former privilege (that of *Hörfreiheit*) and the latter are restricted to a certain extent. In Wurtemberg, the students of theology, after having spent a certain period of time at the preparatory seminaries above-mentioned, are removed to a higher one at Tubingen. At most German universities, the students are initiated into the practice of the ministry by lectures and homiletic societies, which latter are generally directed by some distinguished teacher.

The theologians have to pass several examinations, viz., those at the university, which are made at the end of each academical year, that "*pro candidatura*," and that "*pro ministerio*."

The university examinations are conducted by the professors of the theological faculty; they are not universal, but have only been introduced during the last ten or fifteen years, in Prussia, Saxony, and some other states.

At the conclusion of his academical career, the student passes his examination "*pro candidatura*," generally called "the first examination." It is conducted in Prussia by the provincial consistory, in Saxony by the supreme consistory. Two years after

* We may here remark that Wurtemberg has produced some able opponents of the new levelling system in religion. Tubingen has the reputation of being the only university which has not departed from the doctrines of the Reformation.

this, or at a still later period, he must submit to the grand examination "*pro ministerio.*"

In Prussia, this is conducted by a particular committee, composed of professors of the University of Berlin; in Saxony, by the different consistories. At these two last-mentioned examinations, the student has to write treatises in Latin or German, on exegetic, dogmatic, or historical subjects, to answer questions put at the discretion of the examiners, to preach two sermons before the latter, and, finally, to catechise children on any given religious subject. From the period of his grand examination, to that of his obtaining a place in the church, the theologian is not under any immediate superintendence. He is generally required, however, to preach once a year before the superintendant of the diocese in which he resides, and in some parts, as in Saxe-Gotha, to write a treatise on a religious subject proposed by the consistory.

In Mecklenburg, Nassau, Hanover, and at Wittenberg, in Prussia, there are seminaries where theologians, after having passed their final examination, live together until they are called to the ministry. But by far the greater number become tutors in gymnasiums, private teachers, and (especially in Wurtemberg) assistants to the clergy. In order to keep up their theological acquirements, and prepare themselves for the exercise of the clerical functions, they generally form private homiletical societies, presided over, in most cases, by a superintendant. After the theologian has been appointed to a living, he is confirmed by the consistory, and enters into a certain engagement with it. In some states, the young minister promises to promulgate no doctrine which is opposed to the Augsburg confession; in others, he merely pledges himself, in general terms, to follow, as his guide, the Holy Writ. The day after the confirmation, he is ordained, usually by the superintendant, and in the presence of a great number of clergymen.

In the kingdom of Saxony, all clergymen have to deliver two sermons a year before the superintendant of the diocese. In the Saxon duchies, they are bound, also, to write one or more treatises annually on theological subjects.

Constitution of the Church in Germany. As the Reformers occupied themselves exclusively with the spiritual concerns of the Church, its secular administration, in the Protestant states, fell, at a very early period, into the hands of the respective governments. These latter established consistories, which since the middle of the sixteenth century have gradually increased in authority, so as finally to constitute the only legislative and administrative power of the Church. As they were appointed by the governments, they were of course more or less dependant upon them, and are particularly so at the present day. The *summum jus circa sacra* is exercised by a minister of the crown, assisted by counsellors, who are generally members of the consistory. This is the case in Prussia, Hanover, Saxony, Weimar, Gotha, Bavaria, and Wurtemberg. But the power of the minister is limited,—Firstly, by the consistories themselves, which are considered as the representatives of the Church, and which in some states, as in Hanover, are formed by the whole clergy of the country. Secondly, it is limited, as in Wurtemberg, by the highest ecclesiastical dignitaries or prelates, who maintain, to a certain extent, an independent position. Thirdly, by the representatives of the country, forming the diets, as in Saxony, Wurtemberg, Baden and Hesse, where the heads of the Church have permanent seats in the Chambers, and where clergymen are eligible as deputies. Fourthly, it is limited by synods. In Baden, general synods were instituted on the union of the two churches in 1821, and have been held twice; viz., in that year, and in 1834. In Bavaria there are synods every fourth year.

The Catholic Church is of course very differently situated to the Protestant. In the former, wherever established, the supreme authority is shared, to a certain extent, by the pope. The Congress of Vienna left it to the different governments to treat separately with the pope on ecclesiastical affairs. Accordingly treaties (*concordats*) were entered into with Rome by Bavaria in 1817, by Prussia in 1821, by Wurtemberg and Baden, in 1830. The object of these treaties was to define the limits of temporal and papal authority in ecclesiastical affairs. In Bavaria, the king appoints to bishoprics and archbishoprics, but the clergy are

allowed to be in direct communication with Rome. In Prussia, bishops are appointed by the chapters, in accordance with the wishes of the king; the inferior presentations are at the disposal of the pope or of the bishops*. The Catholic clergy or laity are permitted to communicate with Rome, but only through the bishops and the government. The treaties at present existing between the smaller Protestant states and the pope are only provisional. In Hanover, the bishop cannot be appointed without the consent of the chapters and government, and of the pope; the canons are appointed by the chapters, the bishops, and the government; the inferior clergy by the two consistories. In Saxony, the apostolic vicarship and its consistory are now under the immediate control of government. In Wurtemberg, Hesse, and Nassau, the authority of the pope is somewhat more predominant than in the above-mentioned states; in the Saxon duchies, on the contrary, it is less so. In Baden, it is now decreed that Catholic synods are to be held every tenth year, in the presence of commissioners appointed by government.

In Austria, the archbishops are elected by the pope and the government conjointly: the bishops by the latter exclusively. The communication of the clergy with Rome, and the decrees of the pope, are subject to the "Placet" of the government.

The highest administrative authorities of the Protestant Church are the consistories, which are in most cases subject to the immediate control of the government. In Prussia, each of the eight provinces has its consistory, at the head of which is the president

* To illustrate the kind of authority which the Protestant king of Prussia possesses over the Roman Catholic Church in his dominions, we shall instance a very recent occurrence. The king, being offended with the conduct of the archbishop of Cologne, issued in November, 1837, a decree, ordering him to quit his see, forbidding any persons to communicate on public affairs with him under heavy penalties, and directing the chapter to act during his suspension. The decree begins thus: "The archbishop of Cologne has attempted, ever since his election to that see, to exercise his functions in a manner entirely incompatible with the fundamental laws of the monarchy, as no bishop has ever attempted, and as is not to be tolerated in any of the states of Germany." The sequel of this was, that a carriage stopped at the gate of the episcopal palace, the approaches to which, as well as the adjacent streets, were occupied by troops of the line under arms. The archbishop, accompanied by two superior officers, got into the carriage, which, passing between the numerous troops that lined the streets, drove to the nearest gate, and was, in an instant, outside of the walls of Cologne.

of the provincial government. Each consistory has two departments, that of ecclesiastical and that of scholastic affairs; to its province, also, belongs the drawing up of statistical reports relative to parochial registration. The jurisdiction on matrimonial affairs has been transferred to the secular authorities, since the establishment of the Landrecht. The territory of the kingdom of Saxony is very unequally divided into three consistories; that of Dresden, which decides on all generally important matters, and which is called the supreme consistory, embracing seven-eighths of the whole country. In Saxony, jurisdiction in matrimonial affairs still appertains to the consistories. In the Saxon duchies, the consistories have a general superintendant as their spiritual head, and this is the case, for the most part, throughout Protestant Germany. In Bavaria, the Protestant supreme consistory is only partially subject to the control of the government; there are three inferior consistories. In Austria, there is one consistory at Vienna for the Lutheran and Reformed Churches, and under it are nine superintendants.

The highest administrative authorities of the Catholic Church are archbishops, bishops, deans, &c. In the Protestant states, the highest authorities of the Catholic Church are bishops and consistories, as in Hanover, Prussia, Baden, &c.; or apostolic vicars and consistories, as in Saxony.

The ecclesiastical authorities which rank next to the consistories are either general superintendants, superintendants, or deans. In Hanover, there are fourteen of the former, who act under the consistories, and who have acting under each of them, ten or twelve inspectors. Thus, reckoning the population of Hanover at 1,400,000, there is a general superintendant to every 100,000 inhabitants, and an inspector to every 10,000. An inspectorship generally comprehends from ten to fifteen parishes. In Hesse, there are four consistories, twelve general superintendants, and seventy superintendants. The Protestant population being 560,000, there is one general superintendant to every 46,000 inhabitants, and one superintendant to every 8,000. In Wurtemberg there are, one consistory, six prelates, fifty deaneries, and eight hundred and sixty-five parishes. Thus, the Protestant population amounting

to 1,660,000, there is one prelate to 276,666 inhabitants, and one dean to 33,200. In Saxony there are thirty superintendants, or one to every 51,666 inhabitants.

PROPORTION OF MINISTERS OF RELIGION TO THE POPULATION.

Prussia. We have not been able to discover the number of the Protestant ministers. The Catholic population amounts to 4,816,813, and there are 3,200 Catholic parishes; thus there are 1,505 persons to each parish. *Saxony:* In this country there is one Lutheran minister to 1,600 inhabitants, and one Catholic minister to 432. In *Saxe Altenburg*, there is one minister to 800 inhabitants; in *Hanover*, one to 1,146 amongst the Lutherans, one to 940 in the Reformed Church, and one to 710 amongst the Catholics. In *Wurtemberg*, there is one Lutheran minister to 1,300 inhabitants, and one Catholic to 628. In Catholic *Austria*, there is one ecclesiastic to 500 inhabitants; of the Reformed Church there are 2,035 parishes, and 815 persons to each parish; of the Lutherans there are 807 parishes, and 1,400 persons to each parish; there are 50,000 Unitarians, who have 111 ministers, which is one minister to 459 individuals. In *Bavaria*, there is one minister to 1,000 inhabitants among the Catholics, and one to 914 among the Protestants.

Church Property in the Protestant States. A considerable part of the church-property in Germany was seized upon by the governments when the monasteries were secularized at the Reformation; another portion, consisting of ground-rent, has, for some time, never been realized, and, finally, a part has been expended (as in Saxony,) for the establishment of schools, and on the relief of the poor. However, the little landed property belonging to each parish-church, has, for the most part, remained in the possession of the clergy, and is now the principal source of their income.

In most livings, there is a parsonage-house, surrounded by gardens and orchards. Tithes are very common, and the value of them sometimes equals that of the church-lands. The clergyman has also certain fees, on the occasion of marriages, baptisms, burials and confirmations (these are called *Accidenzien*). Where

the income from these sources is too limited, the government makes up the deficiency. In some parts, and particularly in the north of Germany, it is customary, at certain periods of the year, to make presents to the clergymen. On the whole, in Protestant Germany, the incomes of the country-clergy vary from 350 to 800 dollars; some have less than the former sum, and some as much as 1,000, 1,200, or 1,600 dollars. The value of a living often depends on the price of corn, and on the profit which the clergyman is capable of drawing from his glebe-lands. The livings in towns are somewhat more valuable, varying from 450 to 1,000 dollars on an average. The two most valuable livings in Saxony are of 4,000 dollars a year, but, in both cases, this income is chiefly derived from fees.

In no part of Germany, has the church-property been better preserved from spoliation than in Hanover, where, consequently, the clergy are better paid. In Wurtemberg, the property of the church has been consolidated, and applied not only to ecclesiastical purposes, but to the establishment of schools, and to the relief of the poor. Moreover, in 1806, it was united with the royal domains, and subjected to the same administration. The lands attached to the country-churches have not, however, shared this fate, but are under the control of ecclesiastical commissioners. In Nassau, the average value of livings is from 600 to 1,800 florins, of deaneries from 1,300 to 1,800; the Protestant bishop has an income of 3,000 florins. In Prussia, the government pays out of the treasury to the support of the church, 2,326,000 dollars annually.

Church Property in Catholic States. In Austria, not only are the clergy taxed in common with the lay citizens, but particular imposts are laid upon their body. The value of the church-property in this empire is 200,000,000 florins; besides a fund called the *Religious Fund*, constituted by the purchase-money of church-property (monasteries, &c.) sold by the Emperor Joseph, the annual interest of which is two and a half millions of florins. In Bavaria, the archbishop has an income of 20,000 florins, and the bishops of from 12,000 to 15,000 florins.

Church Patronage. In Germany, the greater number of

church-presentations are at the disposal of the governments, only a fourth part being in the hands of private individuals. In Hanover, 219 only out of 852 livings are in the gift of private patrons. The latter are generally noblemen, large landed proprietors, magistrates, or superintendants. Before a minister is definitively appointed by government, the ecclesiastical superintendant of the district demands of the congregation, whether they have any objection to the character or doctrines of the individual to whose care their spiritual interests are about to be confided. But this is, in general, a mere form. Advantage, however, has been taken of it, in one or two cases, since 1830, to oppose the wishes of the government.

Salaries of Clergymen who are not of the Established Church. —In most Protestant states, the Catholic and the Established churches are placed upon the same footing. But as the ministers of the former persuasion are more numerous than those of the latter, and as, owing to the practice of celibacy, their wants are fewer, their incomes are generally less. On the other hand, the Catholic dignitaries are much better paid than the Protestant ones. In Rhenish Prussia, the Catholic archbishops have an annual income of 12,000 dollars, the bishops of 8,000, the deans of 1,800 or 2,000, the canons of 1,000 or 1,200. This money is now paid out of the treasury; the estates from which these dignitaries formerly derived their incomes having all been secularized. In Saxony, where the ruling family is of the Catholic religion, though the great mass of the population is Protestant, the clergy of the former persuasion are so well paid, as to cause great jealousy amongst those who are followers of the latter. In Hanover, and in Hesse-Cassel, the Catholic clergy are equally well paid with the Protestant, though this is not the case in Wurtemberg and Baden.

In Austria, the Protestant clergy are provided for by their congregations, which have also to pay the *jura stolæ* to the Catholic priests. In Bavaria, the expenses of the Protestant church are defrayed by the government.

We believe that the Jews throughout Germany are obliged, themselves, to defray the expenses of worship.

RELIGIOUS SECTS IN GERMANY.

Bohemian or Moravian Brothers.—Some of this sect, the descendants of the Taborites, who were the more strict amongst the Hussites, are still to be found in Germany. At Berlin and Dresden, there are small congregations of them; also in Moravia, Silesia, and Upper Lusatia. In matters of doctrine, their only authority is the Bible, which they explain according to the Augustinian theory. In reference to their progress in religious experience, they are divided into beginners, advancing, and perfect Christians; they admit the presence of our Lord in the Sacrament of the Holy Supper, but in a mystical manner; and they have a very strict ecclesiastical discipline.

Socinians.—The head-quarters of this sect are in Transylvania. A few of them settled in Prussia, in 1772, and formed two congregations, at Rudau and at Andreaswalde; that of the latter place, however, is the only one which exists at present.

Mennonites.—In the year 1820, 2000 Mennonites settled in Schleswig, and built the town of Friedreichsstadt. They call themselves *Taufgesinnte.* In 1830, some people in Mecklenburg, who stood in no relation to the Mennonites, rejected the baptism of infants, but the government interfered, and they were compelled to abandon their new doctrines.

The *Pietists*, properly so called, were the followers of Spener, and resided principally at Halle. As a sect, they are now extinct, but the term is still applied to the more mystical and zealous Protestants.

Herrnhuters.—The Herrnhuters were originally Moravian fugitives, who settled, in 1722, at Berthelsdorf, the estate of Count Zinzendorf, who shortly after their arrival formed them into a community, which was recognised by the Saxon government. Their creed is that of evangelical Christianity. Their principal congregations are at Herrnhuth, Berthelsdorf, Niesky, Neudretendorf, Ebersdorf and Neuwied. They differ from the pietists and methodists in rejecting the doctrine that a vehement contrition is necessary to regeneration. Every congregation is divided into choruses, according to the various ages and sexes of its members.

Sinners and lukewarm professors are submitted to the operation of a gradual discipline.

Swedenborgians.—Swedenborg has a few followers in Wurtemberg, where lately Tafel of the Royal Library, Hofacker, and others, publicly espoused his doctrines. Swedenborg was a sort of mystical Rationalist, rejecting the doctrines of the Trinity and of the Atonement.

Other sects which may be mentioned, but which are now either extinct, or nearly so, are the *Gichtelians*, or followers of Gichtel, a mystic of Ratisbon; the *Schwenkfeldians*, in Silesia; the *Manhardists*, separatists from the Catholic church in Tyrol, who rejected the priests that had submitted to Napoleon; and the *Philalethes*, a deistical sect at Kiel.

In addition to the German sources above indicated, we must refer those who are desirous of deeper information on the subject of Rationalism, and of the German school of theology, to the writings of Mr. Rose, the respected Principal of King's College; of Dr. Pusey, Professor of Hebrew at Oxford; of Professor Hoppus, of the London University; to two recent articles in the "Church of England Quarterly Review," (October, 1837, and January, 1838); to "A Concise View of the Universities in Germany:" by Edward Robinson, Professor at Andover, U. S.; to the article "Rationalismus," in the *Conversations-Lexikon*, and to scattered views in most modern German theological writings.

In order to afford a fuller illustration of the ecclesiastical polity of Prussia, we subjoin some of the statements furnished by Mr. Hoffman on this head to the British government in 1835.

The ministerial department for ecclesiastical affairs is the central authority for all religious matters, including also the Jewish worship; as also the exercise of the supreme episcopal authority over the Protestant church. Each province has in addition its consistory, subordinate to the ministerial department, to watch over the affairs regarding the Protestant faith and worship. The consistory includes only members of the Protestant faith, and is presided over by the highest civil authority of the province, the

chief president (*Ober-präsident*). The general superintendant is a privileged member of this board.

"By the right of patronage the king confers a number of livings and other clerical offices in all provinces among both confessions. By his episcopal power, he appoints the Protestant general superintendants, and members of the consistories. By an indult implicitly contained in the bull *De salute animarum*, the king likewise appoints the Catholic cathedral provosts, and fills up those canonries which become vacant in *mense papali*, but in this case the see of Rome gives the provista, or the institution.

"The appointment of Catholic bishops is regulated by the bull *De salute animarum* of 1821, (*Preussische Gesetz-Sammlung* of 1821, No. 12,) that is to say, the chapter has the right of election. The difference between election and postulation is abrogated, and therefore every ecclesiastic, whether he belongs to the chapter or diocese or not, is eligible, even foreign clergymen, but only after a previous royal permission. A contemporary brief of Pope Pius VII. obliges the chapters to elect *personam regi gratam*. The king fixes the day of election within the canonical term. He sends a commissioner, who takes no part in the canonical affairs of the election, but assumes, notwithstanding, the initiative, by declaring to the members of the chapter, the intentions of the crown. By these means, not only has the election of an individual disliked by the court been avoided, but the choice falls always on those whose promotion to the rank of bishop the court had in view. The person canonically chosen receives his confirmation from the pope, and the approbation from the sovereign. The pope is required to entrust a Prussian prelate with the consecration.

"The *Landrecht*, § 65, tit. 2, vol. ii., provides that ordination can only be given to a clerical office which affords a maintenance. Accordingly, ordination, even in the Catholic church, is only granted upon proof of the right of admission according to the canonical law, and is besides restricted by a regulation, obliging the bishops to deliver a list of the candidates for ordination, and to declare the necessity for them, to the chief president of

the province. There is, however, rather a scarcity than a superabundance of Catholic clergymen. Nobody, without a special permission, is permitted to be ordained abroad.—*Landrecht*, vol. ii. tit. 2, § 64.

"There exist no general rules respecting the support of the clergy. Only the incomes of the higher Catholic clergy are fixed by the bull *De salute animarum*, namely, for the archbishop and prince-bishop of Breslau at 12,000 Prussian dollars; (about 1,750*l.*); for the other bishops 8,000 Prussian dollars, for the dignitaries of cathedral chapters respectively, 2,000, 1,800, 1,400 Prussian dollars; and for canons or prebends, respectively, 1,200, 1,000 and 800 Prussian dollars, besides house-room. The incomes of all other livings, either of the Protestant or Catholic church, are very different. The clergyman receives his income either in kind or in money. It is paid in kind when it arises from a real estate belonging to his benefice, which he manages himself, or when it is rendered to him by landed proprietors. Of the same kind are tithes, rents, and other payments from land. The money-income of the clergy arises partly out of the public revenues of the crown, or of the parishes, either as a salary or compensation for appropriated lands or ground-rents, or as rents from private estates, or from endowments laid out at interest. The crown has undertaken the above-mentioned payment of the Catholic dignitaries, since their landed property had been appropriated to the public revenue. In the Trans-Rhenane part of the kingdom, where, during the French sway, the church property was seized and chiefly alienated, the crown pays a salary to the clergy, as a compensation, according to a *concordat* entered into by the French consular government with Pope Pius VII.

"The maintenance of the clergy proceeds in general from the peculiar endowment of each congregation. Where this is not the case, the congregation that desires the service of a clergyman, is responsible for his maintenance. The government in general is not obliged to guarantee the salary of the clergy of either confession. Where such is the case, a special legal right, or a special liberality, is supposed. Nevertheless, the number of parishes is

not small, which in this case enjoy a support out of the public funds by the favour of the king.

"In general every parish possesses a place of worship for its exclusive use. The case is called a *simultaneum*, when two congregations of different confessions are entitled to the use of the same building for divine service; which is very rare, and then generally depends on old usage. In the Trans-Rhenane part of the kingdom it is prohibited by law.

"In general every church has its own fund (*bona fabrica*), out of which it has to defray the expense of building, repairing, and the expenses caused by divine service. Where this is not the case, the subsidiary obligation falls, according to the difference in the constitution of the provincial or local law, either upon the beneficed clergyman, if he has more than a sufficient living (*congruam*), or the parish, if there is no patron, or the patron together with the parish, or the patron exclusively, or the proprietor of the church tithes (*decimator*), or the civil commune. In cases of urgent necessity the assistance of government is accorded, but only as a bounty, if there be no special legal ground providing for it."

CHAPTER XII.

EDUCATION IN GERMANY.

General View of the Universities. Academical Regulations. Translation of the Prospectus of Lectures delivered at the University of Göttingen. Particulars respecting the mode of Life at a German University. Preparatory Schools. Gymnasiums, Lyceums, Pedagogiums. Education in Austria. System of Public Education in Prussia. Normal Schools.

It is undeniable, that no country possesses so ample a provision for the education of all ranks of people, in all sciences and arts, as Germany. It is in this country, then, that the *results* of education may be most advantageously ascertained and weighed. Some may observe, in answer to this, that the want of free institutions, and of an unshackled developement of mind, is an obstacle to a full statement of, and decision upon, the results. This may be true, to a certain degree,—but the fact with which we set out remains unaltered. A singular contrast exists between the tendency and the consequences of an English and a German education. The German education is particularly engrossed with the physical and practical sciences; the English one is rather occupied with theological and moral principles, with the cultivation of the ancient classics, with poetry and rhetoric. Yet, in the end, the Englishman becomes most practical, and the German the most theoretical and sentimental.

The facility with which the highest education may be obtained in Germany, naturally introduces into the arena of life an immense proportion of candidates for its higher prizes, too many of whom finally obtain disappointment, if not entire destitution, while not a few bury their obscure heart-burnings in the chance pittance afforded by foreign countries, already overstocked with aspirants of indigenous origin. Thus, in the course of ten recent years, the number of Protestant clergymen has doubled in Prussia, and

the Roman Catholic priesthood has tripled; the lawyers have increased one-fourth, but the doctors in medicine only one-seventh. At the beginning of this period there was one lawyer in 12,600 inhabitants, at the end there was one in 8,562; there was one doctor of medicine, at the beginning, in 27,000 souls, and at last one in 25,205. In consequence of the increase of students in the late years, there was recently in Prussia so many as

One student of theology in 442 inhabitants.
" " law in 822 " "
" " medicine in 5,660 " "

But the state in Prussia only requires—

One clergyman for - - - 1,350 inhabitants.
One lawyer for - - - - 822 " "
One doctor of medicine for 3,516 " ".

How many of those now employed must accordingly die or retreat, in order to make room for the forthcoming! In the smaller states of Germany the prospect is still more disheartening. In the duchy of Baden, only eight vacancies annually occur of offices in the law, enjoying a fixed salary, while so many as forty-six candidates present themselves annually for examination; and there are already so many as two hundred and fifty-one candidates examined and approved, and awaiting the long-deferred turn*.

The following is a list of the universities of Germany, with the year of their foundation, the number of professors attached to each, and the number of students attending them in 1827:—

Universities of	Founded in the Year	Number of Professors.	Number of Students.
Prague - - - -	1348	55	1,449
Vienna - - -	1365	77	1,685
Heidelberg - - -	1368	55	626
Wurzburg - - -	1403	31	660
Leipsic - - - -	1409	81	1,384
Rostock - - -	1419	34	201
Friburg - - -	1450	35	556
Greifswalde - -	1456	30	227
Tübingen - - -	1477	44	827

* Schön. Allgemeine Geschichte und Statistik der Europäischen Civilisation. (Leipzig, 1833), p. 183.

Universities of	Founded in the Year	Number of Professors.	Number of Students.
Marburg	1527	38	304
Königsberg	1544	23	303
Jena	1558	51	432
Giessen	1607	39	371
Kiel	1665	26	238
Halle	1694	64	1,119
Breslau	1702	49	710
Göttingen	1734	89	1,545
Erlangen	1743	34	498
Berlin	1810	86	1,245
Bonn	1818	42	526
Munich	1825	71	1,123

The sums allowed for the support of the universities, by their respective states, is not large. The professors derive their chief emolument from the students who attend their private courses; they are hence stimulated to extend their reputation, to diffuse themselves, and to compete with each other. Their energies are thus awakened and sustained, but a certain portion of independence of character is endangered. The salary allotted to the professors is not uniform, but fluctuates according to the reputation of the individual, and to other circumstances.

A few years since it was decreed in Hanover, that no youth shall commence the study of any of the faculties, until he have passed a previous examination. Greek, Latin, German, French, Natural Philosophy, Mathematics, and History, form the basis of this examination: part of it is *viva voce*, and part on paper. An exercise is performed in writing in each of the four languages. If the student is deficient, he is rejected, and is prevented for the present from commencing the study of his faculty. This previous rejection often occurs. If successful, he may begin his studies, which in the case of the medical student must be continued during three years and a half. He must attend both the winter and summer courses. There are two short vacations only in the year; about five weeks at Easter, and five at Michaelmas. The order in which the different lectures are attended is left entirely to the discretion of the student. He may begin with

botany or with obstetrics, according to his own inclination. On going up for his final examination for a degree, he produces certificates of having attended, at least, one course of the most indispensable branches: auxiliary departments are not so rigidly enforced. A student, for instance, is not obliged to produce certificates of attendance on the surgical clinic, or on the principles of surgery; but anatomy, chemistry, materia medica, botany, and the practice of medicine, are all indispensable. A single examination conducts the student to his degree: it lasts five hours, and is now entirely carried on in the German language. The principal professors of each faculty are present: the examination takes place in private, at the house of the dean of the faculty, who is changed every year. No part of the examination is in writing, unless a prescription is demanded of the student. Having passed through this ordeal, the student delivers a thesis in public, in Latin, and chooses three opponents in general, who carry on a public discussion, if they think proper. The expense of a degree is about 25*l.* Still, after having performed all these duties, the graduate cannot practise in any part of the kingdom, until he has undergone another examination at the metropolis,—this is called the State (*Staat's*) examen, and costs about two pounds more. This examination lasts about three hours, and comprehends nearly the same subjects as those required at Göttingen. In addition to the *viva voce* questions, he performs three manuscript exercises, for the inspection of the state-commissioners at Hanover. A nearly similar course of study prevails in the universities of all the German states.

The following is a literal translation of the Latin prospectus of the lectures delivered at the university of Göttingen, during a recent winter sessions:—

FACULTY OF THEOLOGY.

Theo. Jac. Planck, Doctor of Divinity and P. P. O., will treat of and expound, God willing and giving him strength, in the present winter-semester h. viii.—ix., *Encyclopædiae Theology*, taking as a guide his Compendium, written for the use of his lectures in 1831, entitled *Grundriss der Theologischen Encyclopædie*, now published by Ruprecht

and Vandenhoeck; and h. xi.—xii., he will treat of the first part of *Ecclesiastical History*; on both subjects he will lecture four times a week.

D. David J. Pott, P. P. O., will interpret privatim h. ix.—x., *the Gospel and Epistles of St. John*, with copious digressions on the principal opinions of the Jews as occurring in the New Testament; h. x.—xi., he will expound the *Psalms*, treating also of their grammatical construction; h. ii.—iii., he will lecture on the *Homiletic Art*, and will also continue to regulate the different exercises of the scholars of the Royal Homiletic Seminary.

Henry Planck, Dr. and P. P. O., announces six private lectures per week, to form the other part of his exegetic course, including the writings of *St. John, the Gospel, and the Epistles;* h. ix.—x., he will lecture on the *Acts of the Apostles;* h. xi.—xii., he will give an *historico-critical introduction to the sacred books of the New Testament* He will also continue, in his usual manner, to regulate the exercises of the Theological Society.

G. C. F. Lücke, Dr. and P. P. O., privatim: 1. h. ix., he will interpret, in six lessons weekly, the Epistles of St. Paul to the *Thessalonians*, *Galatians*, *Romans*, and *Philippians*, giving first an introduction to all St. Paul's Epistles; 2. h. xi., he will teach the *Christian Dogmatic* in six lessons weekly; he will also hold conferences with his class on dogmatic questions at a convenient hour. Publicè: he will continue, in his usual way, to regulate the exercises of the Latin Theological Society, on Thursdays, at seven in the evening.

J. C. L. Gieseler, Dr. and P. P. O., will give the second part of *Ecclesiastical History*, six times a week, h. viii.; the *History of Dogmas* five times, h. v.

J. P. Trefurt, Dr., Honorary Prof., will deliver, privatim: 1. h. i.—ii., on Mondays, Tuesdays, Thursdays and Fridays, *the Precepts of the Catechetical Art*, with the first practical exercises; 2. h. ix.—x., five times weekly, *Pastoral Theology*, with an outline of *Protestant Ecclesiastical Law*, as far as a knowledge of it seems necessary for a minister of the Divine word. In both courses of lectures, he will use his Conspectus, *Tabell. Leitfaden zu Akad. Vorlesungen über die Pastorallehre*, published 1825. Publicè: h. i.—ii., twice weekly, he will continue in his usual way to regulate the exercises of the Catechetical Seminary.

FACULTY OF LAW.

G. J. F. Meister, h. x.—xi., will teach from his Compendium *Criminal Law*, including *Criminal Process*, h. iii.—iv., he will deliver the *Theory of the Civil Process*, according to the text of Martini.

G. Hugo, h. viii., will give the *History of Civil Law*; h. x., the *Encyclopædia of Law*, leaving his books for private study.

Anton Bauer, D., h. xi.—xii., will teach the *Institutions of Roman Law*, according to the text of Waldeck; h. x.—xi., *Criminal Law*, from his Compendium; h. ii.—iii., four times a week. *Natural Law* from the third edition of his Compendium; h. viii.—ix., four times a week, he will expound to the Nassau students, *The constitution and administration of the duchy of Nassau.*

F. Bergmann, Dr., h. ix., four times a week, will hold his class of practical law (*processuale practicum*); h. x., three times a week he will institute pleadings with the assistance of his book, *Beiträge zur Einleitung in die Praxis der Civil processe &c.*; h. i., five times a week, he will deliver the *Hanoverian Common Law.*

J. F. L. Goeschen, Dr., h. ix.—x., and h. xi.—xii., will lecture on the *Pandects*, from the new edition of his book; h. i.—ii., he will give *the History and Antiquities of the Roman Law, chiefly of the Common Law.*

G. G. Albrecht, h. xi., will lecture six times a week on *German Public Law*; h. ii., five times weekly, on the *History of German Law, both Public and Private.*

F. Blume, Dr., h. ix.—xi., will teach the doctrine of *Pandects*, daily, from his book, *Grundriss des Pandectenrechts*; h. iii., he will interpret the first books of the *Digests of Justinian*, after giving a History of Digests.

FACULTY OF MEDICINE.

J. F. Blumenbach, Dr., h. viii.—ix., four times a week, will lecture on *Comparative Anatomy*; h. iii.—iv., on *Natural History.*

C. Himly, Dr., h. x., six times a week, will expound *the more special nosology and therapeutics* of the digestive, respiratory, uropoietic and other systems; h. xi., daily, will give *clinical* and *medico-chirurgical instructions*, in the hospital, and in private houses of the town and neighbourhood, in the manner described in his book, *Verfassung der Med. Chir. Klinik zu Göttingen*, 1803. Privatissimè, at convenient hours, he will instruct in the *Operative Surgery of the Eye and Ear.*

H. Schrader, Dr., h. ii.—iii., four times a week, will treat of the *Pharmacological part of Materia Medica;* h. xi.—xii., twice weekly, he will lecture on the Linnæan Cryptogamia; and, also, twice weekly, h. ii.—iii., on *Vegetable Anatomy and Physiology;* h. xi.—xii., on Wednesdays, he will show the rarer plants which are cultivated in the hothouses of the Botanical Garden. At the accustomed hours he will institute *Botanical Excursions* towards furthering the knowledge of cryptogamic plants.

C. J. M. Langenbeek, Dr., Professor of Anatomy and Surgery, h. i.—ii., will give *Anatomical demonstrations*, according to his book, (*Anat. Handbuch Tabell. Entworfen,*) in which he will go through *Splanchnology*, *Angiology and Neurology*, and which he will illustrate by his Anatomical plates; h. ii.—iv., he will instruct his class in the *Art of Dissection;* h. vi.—vii., p.m., he will lecture on the second part of Surgery; h. ix.—x., he will direct the *clinical surgical exercises in the Surgical Hospital.* Privatissimè, he will give a course of *Manual Surgery*, and a course of *Operative Ocular Surgery.*

F. Stromeyer, D., Professor of Chemistry and Pharmacy, h. ix.—x., six times a week, will give *Experimental, Theoretical Chemistry;* h. viii.—ix., three times a week, *Vegetable Chemistry;* and, at the same hour, twice a week, *Animal Chemistry;* h. i.—iii., twice a week, he will attend in the Chemical Laboratory and direct, in the usual way, the *Chemical Manipulations.*

D. J. G. Conradi, h. iii., four times a week, will lecture on *Pathology* and *General Therapeutics;* h. v., four times a week, on the second part of *Pathology* and *Special Therapeutics*, embracing anormal excretions, cachexics, pains, eclyses, spasmodic diseases, and diseases of the mind, according to the third edition of his Compendium; h. ix., he will teach the *Practice of Medicine* in the Clinical Institution.

A. F. Hempel, Dr., h. x.—xi., twice weekly, will teach *Osteology* and *Syndesmology;* h. x.—xii., he will superintend the dissection of bodies; h. i.—ii., he will explain *Myology* in anatomical demonstrations.

L. J. C. Mende, Dr., h. viii., five times a week, will teach the *Obstetric Art and Science;* h. ix., on Saturdays, and at every other opportunity, he will superintend *Obstetric Operations*, at the Royal Obstetric Hospital; he will be ready to give more private instruction in this art to those who require it; h. iii., p.m., four times a week, he will expound the treatment of the *Diseases of pregnant, parturient, and puerperal Women;* h. v., five times a week, he will lecture on *Forensic Medicine.*

C. F. H. Marx, Dr., h. iii.—iv., will treat of *Pathology* and *Special Therapeutics*, or, after an introduction, that part which comprehends nervous diseases, cachexies, retentions, and fluxes. On account of its present prevalence, he will treat more fully of Cholera, taking as a guide his book recently published on that disease.

FACULTY OF PHILOSOPHY.

J. D. Reuss will give the *History of Universal Literature.*

T. C. Tychsen, h. ix., will illustrate the antiquities of the Hebrews, using his printed Conspectus as a text-book; h. ii., he will comment on the prophecies of Isaiah. Publicè, he will illustrate the *Hebrew songs* found in the historical books, at an hour which will be indicated on the black board.

C. G. Mitscherlich, h. xi.—xii., on Saturdays, will regulate the discussions of the pupils in the Royal Philological Seminary; h. ii.—iii., privatim, he will translate the *Agamemnon* of Æschylus, the *Œdipus Tyrannus* of Sophocles, and the *Cyclops* and *Phœnissæ* of Euripides.

A. H. L. Heeren, h. xi.—xii., will teach the Statistics, general and special, of the British Empire, France, Russia, and the United States; h. iv.—v., the *History of the principal Kingdoms of Europe*, from the national migrations to the present time.

G. E. Schulze, h. viii.—ix., five times a week, will read *Logic* and the *Encyclopædia of Philosophy*, the former according to the fifth edition of his Compendium; h. iv.—v., he will teach *Metaphysics*, with the *Philosophic Doctrine of Religion.*

B. F. Thibaut, h. vi.—vii., will deliver *Pure Mathematics;* h. iii. —iv., the *Differential and Integral Calculus.*

C. F. Gauss, h. x., will explain the *Use of the Calculation of Probabilities* applied to the Mathematics, especially to astronomy, to the higher geodesy, and to crystallometry; in his more private lessons he will teach *Practical Astronomy.*

J. F. L. Haussman, h. viii.—ix., twice a week, will teach *Agriculture;* h. x.—xi., six times weekly, *Mineralogy*, from the second edition of his work. Privatissimè, h. viii.—ix., four times a week, he will treat of *Metallurgy.*

C. L. Harding, h. x.—xi., will give the elements of *Astronomy;* h. ii.—iii., he will expound *the Nautical Art.*

G. F. Benecke, h. vi.—vii., p. m., four times a week, will deliver the Elements of the *English Language.* He will arrange to give a course

of *German Literature* to those who are occupied with the study of ancient poetry; he will be ready to assist those who require more private instruction.

C. Bunsen, h. viii.—ix., will treat of *Physical Geography;* h. iv.—v., five times a week, he will give the elements of the Italian, Spanish and Portuguese languages; h. v.—vi., four times a week, he will expound the *Præcepta Styli Theodisci.*

L. Dissen, publicè, h. xi.—xii., Mondays and Tuesdays, the pupils of the Royal Philological Seminary will translate in his presence the *Ajax* of Sophocles; privatim, h. iii.—iv., five times a week, he himself will lecture on *Roman Antiquities.*

Solangia Arland, four times a week, at the hour convenient to his class, will give the *History of French Literature* in the French language; he will continue his more private lessons in the usual way.

F. Saalfeld, h. v.—vi., will lecture, 1. on *Universal Policy*, or *the Science of constituting and administering the Republic*, using as a guide his Conspectus; 2. on *Political Economy*, also, the *Art of managing the Public Revenue*, according to his prospectus (ap. Rup. and Vandenhoeck), h. x.—xi.; 3. on *the Positive Law of Nations*, three times a week, h. ix.—x., according to his Conspectus (ap. Rup. and Vand.); 4. on *the Universal History of the Present Time*, from the breaking out of the French revolution to our days, according to his Conspectus (ap. Rup. and Vand.), h. iii.—iv.

C. O. Müller will exercise, publicè, the pupils of the Royal Philological Seminary, in explaining the play, *The Captives* of Plautus, twice a week, h. xi.—xii. Privatim, h. ix.—x., five times a week, he will teach the *Mythology and History of the Religion of the Ancients;* h. x.—xi., also five times a week, he will deliver the *History of the Greek and Latin Languages.*

A. Wendt, h. viii.—ix., four times a week, will expound *Psychology*, or *Psychological Anthropology*, according to theses to be communicated to his auditory; h. x.—xi., five times a week, he will give a conspectus of the *History of Philosophy*, using as a guide his edition of the Compendium of *Tennemann* (fifth edition, Leipsic, 1829); h. v.—vi., five times a week, he will propound *Æsthetics*, or the Doctrine of the Nature of the Beautiful and of Poetry, adding an outline of the *History of German Poetry*, from his theses. Finally, he will institute gratuitous philosophical exercises.

F. C. Dahlmann, 1. h. ix., six times weekly, will lecture on *German*

History, according to his work, *Quellenkunde der Deutschen Geschichte* (1830, ap. Dietrich); 2. h. x., five times weekly, on *Political Economy*; 3. h. iii., five times weekly, on *Universal Policy*, when he will give a full explanation of *Police*.

J. Grimm, h. iv.—v., four times a week, will teach *the Grammar of the Ancient German Language*, and its relation to that of the modern.

G. C. J. Ulrich, h. xi., on Saturdays, will lecture publicè on the doctrine of *Perspective;* h. ii., privatim, on *Pure Mathematics;* h. iv., on *Trigonometry*, *Polygonometry*, and *Stereometry*, according to his Compendium; h. ix., on *Algebra* and *Analytical Geometry;* h. xi., on *Practical Mathematics;* h. i., on *Civil Architecture*.

C. Hoeck, h. v.—vi., five times a week, will deliver *Universal Ancient History;* h. iv.—v., he will expound, philologically and historically, the *Philippics* and other public orations of Demosthenes.

G. H. E. Ewald, h. x., will translate the book of the prophet *Isaiah;* h. ii., he will expound the *Archæology of the Bible*, with the *History of the Hebrews*. Publicè, h. i., on Mondays and Wednesdays, he will illustrate to the students of Sanscrit and Arabic select rhapsodies of the *Mahabharata;* on Thursdays and Fridays, the *Koran* and *Hamasa;* h. vi., on Fridays, he will exercise the Exegetic Society, in the usual manner.

G. Weber will announce his *Physical Lectures* on the black board at a convenient time.

EXTRAORDINARY PROFESSORS.

I. OF THE THEOLOGICAL FACULTY.

G. Reiche in the coming semester, 1. will translate, six times a week, *the Lesser Epistles of St. Paul*, h. ix.—x.; 2. h. ii.—iii., will give an *Historico-Critical Introduction to the Canonical Books of the New Testament;* 3. h. ii.—iv., he will teach *Theological Encyclopædia and Methodology*. He will examine the hearers of his exegetic lectures two or three times a week. He will take a future opportunity of agreeing on the hour of instruction with those who may require private examinations.

II. OF THE FACULTY OF LAW.

G. J. Ribbendorf, D., will teach, privatim, 1. h. xi., and on Tuesdays and Fridays also at nine, the *Institutions of Roman Law;* 2. h. x. *The*

History and Antiquities of the Roman Law; 3. h. ii., five times a week, the *Doctrine of Heritages.*

W. T. Kraut, Dr., h. ix.—x., and h. xi.—xii., six times a week, will lecture on *German Common Law* (with feudal law) from his book, *Grundriss zu Vorlesungen über das Deutsche Privatrecht. Göttingen,* 1830; h. ii.—iii., five times a week, on *Ecclesiastical Law,* from the fifth edition of the Compendium of Wiesianus, published by him.

III. OF THE MEDICAL FACULTY.

J. F. Osiander, h. ii., will treat of the practical part of the *Obstetric Art,* which comprehends the method of treating both natural and preternatural births.

IV. OF THE PHILOSOPHICAL FACULTY.

G. Grimm will translate, privatim, four times a week, the epic poem, called *Iwein,* edited at Berlin, 1827, by Benecke and Lachmann.

F. T. Bartling, Dr. Ph., 1. will demonstrate, publicè, h. ii., twice a week, the orders of the *Polypetalous Plants;* 2. h. ii., four times a week, he will also give the history of *Cryptogamic Plants;* and h. xi., four times a week, will teach *Organography* and *Vegetable Physiology.*

E. Schmidt will deliver *Popular Astronomy,* h. vi.; *Analysis,* together with *Analytical Geometry,* h. iii.

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E. F. Ayrer, Master of Equitation, will continue in his usual manner, his equestrian exercises in the Royal Riding-school. Privatim, he will teach that part of the veterinary art which treats of training the horse.

F. C. Lappe, Dr., Director of the Royal Veterinary Institution, h. i.—ii., five times a week, will give the *Anatomy* and *Physiology* of the domestic animals used for agricultural purposes; h. ii.—iii., four times a week, *Veterinary Materia Medica;* h. x.—xi., he will continue the practical exercises in the usual manner.

Music and the *Art of Drawing,* also the *Languages* and *Literature* of the most cultivated nations of Europe, will be taught by intelligent and learned men, who will announce, in the usual place, the subject and time of their lectures. *Gymnastics* and the *Art of Fencing* will be taught by stipendiary masters.

The annual salaries of the professors, at the smaller German universities, vary from five hundred to twelve hundred florins; in the Prussian universities, where it must also be taken into consideration the expense of living is greater, they receive as many dollars. It is not customary for German students to lodge in the houses of the professors; but foreigners are received into them sometimes: there is no general rule for the expense of such an arrangement. The number of duels varies very much at the different universities; some of them are celebrated for their prevalence, whilst, in others, particularly in Prussia, they are nearly suppressed. At Giessen, where there are from four to five hundred students, there are perhaps a hundred duels annually: at Wurzburg, the proportion is somewhat greater, and at Heidelberg larger still. In the universities situated in large towns, as in Berlin, and Vienna, duels were always comparatively rare, and are now very seldom resorted to. The annual average expenditure of a German student at a university is about five hundred florins; in the north, it is somewhat more; in the south, considerably less. The fees for lectures amount to about one hundred florins annually, supposing the student to attend four classes each semester, which is the usual number. A good lodging may be had at Heidelberg or Tübingen for twenty-five florins per semester, but at Bonn or Berlin it would cost at least as many dollars. At even the dearer universities, a shilling is considered a considerable price for a dinner; many of the students dine for sixpence, and some for less than that.

The time which a medical student has to pass at the university, before he can present himself for examination, is generally five years; the students of law and theology a year less. The theologians are often extremely poor, and bring with them from the burgomaster of their village a *testimonium paupertatis*, by virtue of which they are admitted free even to the private lectures of the professors. The slenderness of the sum with which many of these are provided, for the defraying of their academical expenses, is very remarkable. The students, or academical citizens, as they were called, have hitherto been a privileged body in Germany, only amenable to the university-laws and regula-

tions; and though this state of things is now in progress of abolition, its forms are still more or less respected in most of the universities. The number of students annually rusticated used to be very limited, before the recent operation of political causes. Formerly, on an average, not more than one or two were expelled in a year; but lately whole bodies have been banished, to the number of fifty or sixty, at some peculiar crises.

The corrections and punishments in force are the following:— Imprisonment, *consilium abeundi*, *relegatio*, and *relegatio in perpetuum*.

Gambling is allowed, but not gambling-houses. The number of students who keep horses is extremely small; indeed, at the majority of the universities none do so; the few who ride, hire their steeds. In the small towns containing universities, there are no brothels licensed by the governments. Students of licentious habits occasionally make expeditions to some neighbouring large town; from Bonn, they go to Cologne; from Heidelberg, to Mannheim; and from Marburg, to Frankfort. Though brothels are forbidden, there are still in most of these small places two or three prostitutes, who are generally of the very lowest order. There are some few profligate individuals to be found in each university; but from the spirit of party which divides the students into distinct classes, they fortunately come very little into contact with, and consequently cannot corrupt the mass, which, on the whole, is moral in conduct. For a student to have an illegitimate child, is a case so rare as to form quite an exception to the general rule. Beer-drinking and smoking are sometimes indulged in to excess.

No sumptuary laws are in force, but no tradesman can summon a student for more than a certain sum. In Giessen, for instance, a tailor cannot claim more than twelve florins, a shoemaker more than ten, a victualler more than the amount of a two months' bill, or a lodging-house keeper more than half a year's rent.

The schools at which students are prepared for the university, are called Gymnasiums, Lyceums, and Pedagogiums,; they are generally established by the government, and the expense of instruction at them is very moderate. Boarding-schools are not

very common. The children of parents residing in the country, who are intended for learned professions, are generally sent to lodge with a friend in some neighbouring town, where they enter at the gymnasium as day-scholars. Boarding-schools, frequented by foreigners, are chiefly to be found in the north of Germany: amongst some others, we may instance establishments of this kind at Halle in Saxony, and at Ilfeld in Hanover. At the latter place, the terms, including every thing, are two hundred dollars a year for the foreigner, and one hundred and thirty-five for the Hanoverian.

Parochial schools exist in all parts of Germany, and education is not only, generally, almost gratuitous for the poorer classes, but it is to a certain degree enforced by law. At most of these, singing is a part of the elementary education imparted,—and a most beneficial portion, because it harmonises the mind, affords an innocent amusement for unemployed hours, and is a bond of union in humble societies.

SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN AUSTRIA.

We shall confine ourselves to a mere sketch of the classes of seminaries existing in Austria. They may be divided into:

I. National schools,—among which are the schools of every *parish*, in which a register is kept, open to all ages; *head schools*, existing in the chief towns, designed for instructing youth in mechanical occupations; *normal schools*, for the purpose of educating teachers; and *civic schools*, destined for affording practical knowledge in commerce and the arts. With the exception of Hungary and Transylvania, the proportion of pupils attending the above schools is about one in ten of the whole population; and there is, on an average, one master to every sixty pupils.

II. Besides these national schools, there are *classical* ones, which consist of the ordinary *land gymnasiums*, and of the lyceums, and *university gymnasiums*. These seminaries are supported by the fees of the pupils, and by endowments and grants: they resemble, in some respects, our classical schools, are subjected to a fixed course of study, and use a fixed selection of books.

III. They are preparatory to the *nine universities* of Austria. There are several medical schools, and special institutions, as for mining, polytechnics, agriculture, and Oriental languages, in different towns, not connected with the universities.

SYSTEM OF POPULAR EDUCATION IN PRUSSIA.

We shall speak more largely on this topic, in consequence of the large share of attention which it has excited in other countries, and of the frequent reference made to it. We do not presume to decide as to its special merits, in comparison with the system pursued in other parts of Germany; but we believe that all the states deserve attention and inquiry in almost an equal degree. The territory of the kingdom of Prussia is divided into ten provinces, which are subdivided into departments, circles, and parishes. Every department has a board of education, which employs school-inspectors, who reside in the chief towns of every circle, and who inspect all the schools in it. Every circle and parish has also its school-board, and every school its proper inspectors or committee: the clergyman of the parish is, by virtue of his office, one of the inspectors. There is also another officer, the school-councillor, who inspects the schools, quickens and keeps alive the interest of the different boards and schoolmasters, and reports to the higher authorities. The whole system, since it came into operation in 1819, has been under the cognizance and control of the Minister of Public Instruction, who is assisted in his deliberations by a council. The minister, though fully informed of the results of the system, by long and accurate reports from the dependant functionaries, does not interfere minutely with its details. The functionaries in the department of Public Instruction, have, for the most part, a salary attached to their office. The educational establishments are, 1. elementary, or primary schools; 2. burgher, or middle schools, gymnasiums; and, 3. universities.

All parents who are unable to prove that they can give their children a competent education at home, are bound by law to send them to school, as soon as they have reached the age of five years. All masters and manufacturers, who employ children as

servants or apprentices, are required to give them a suitable education from their seventh to their fourteenth year inclusive. No child can be removed from school, till the inspectors have examined whether he has gone through the whole elementary course. Care is everywhere taken to furnish necessitous parents with the means of sending their children to school, by providing them with clothing and books. The schools are supported by endowments variously derived, by a tax upon property, and by contributions of parents who are able to pay for the education of their children. The number of children in a school must not be too great, nor can one master have more than a hundred scholars. No schoolmaster collects the fees; this must be done by the board or committee. Children are permitted to contribute to a fund for the education of those who are too poor to pay their portion of the charge. There are some schools in large places entirely free to the poor. No schoolmaster is allowed to increase his income by occupations inconsistent with the dignity of his office. The committees are legally responsible for all the expenses of the schools, and for the management of their funds.

The school-houses must be built in a healthy situation, must contain good-sized rooms, be well ventilated, and kept with great neatness: in villages or small towns, they have a garden belonging to them, which is made available to the scholars for instruction in botany and horticulture. In front of, or behind, the school, a gravelled court must be laid out for exercises. Maps and geographical instruments, models for drawing and writing, instruments and collections for studying mathematics and natural history, are supplied, according to the wants of the scholars.

The first object of every school, says the law of 1819, is to train up the young in such a manner as to implant in their minds a knowledge of the relation of man to God, and, at the same time, to excite them to govern their lives according to the spirit and precepts of Christianity. The daily occupations, therefore, shall begin and end with a short prayer, and some pious reflections; and all the solemnities of the schools shall be interspersed with songs of a religious character. Obedience to the laws, fidelity and attachment to the sovereign and state, are to be

carefully inculcated. No kind of punishment which has a tendency to weaken the sentiment of honour shall in any case be inflicted. Incorrigible scholars, after the necessary attempts to reclaim them have proved futile, are to be expelled.

In the elementary schools the course of instruction is to comprehend Religion, as a means of forming the moral character of children according to the positive truths of Christianity; the German language, and the language of the country in provinces where another is spoken; the elements of geometry and drawing; calculation and practical arithmetic; the elements of physics, geography, general history, and especially the history of Prussia; singing, principally for the purpose of religious exercises; writing and gymnastic exercises; and the simplest mechanical and agricultural operations. The instructions in religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, are to be strictly indispensable in every school.

In the *burgher* or *middle* schools, the course of instruction is to include, besides the most important of the foregoing subjects, exercises in style; the modern foreign languages, in the German part of the country as an accessory branch of study; Latin, as a means of exercising the faculties of the pupil, and of determining whether he is to enter the higher schools; the elements of mathematics, and a thorough course of practical arithmetic; and the Prussian laws and constitution.

Periodical examinations are to be held; and on quitting the elementary school, the pupil is to receive a certificate as to his capacity, and his moral and religious disposition, signed by the masters and the school-committee. No special books are to be prescribed for the different branches of instruction in the primary schools, which are to be free to adopt the best works as they appear. For religious instruction, which in Protestant schools is founded mainly on the Holy Scriptures, the Bible, and the Catechism generally adopted, shall be used. The New Testament shall be given to children who can read. The more advanced scholars shall have the whole Bible; in Luther's translation: this book shall also be used for the religious instruction in all the classes of the gymnasiums. Public exami-

nations of the boys' schools are to take place at intervals, and, if possible, on days celebrated in the national history. Examinations of the girls' schools shall also be held, but only in the presence of the masters and parents. Parents may address complaints to the proper authorities, respecting the education of their children, but they must not present any obstacle to the conformation of the latter to the rules established in the schools.

Clergymen are to seize every opportunity, whether at church, or during their visits of inspection, of reminding teachers of their high and holy mission, and the people of their duty towards the public instructors. The people, in short, are to be brought, as much as possible, to regard education as one of the essential conditions of public life, and daily to take deeper interest in its progress.

In 1833, there were about fifty schools for teachers (or Normal Schools, as they are sometimes called) in Prussia, in which the course of study lasts three years. The demand for new teachers in the respective departments is regularly ascertained, and no more are educated than can find employment in the country. The same establishments train masters for the lower and higher schools; the expense of them is chiefly defrayed by government. The supply of teachers is not entirely furnished by these seminaries; but the standard of fitness which is set up in them, is applied by law to all other candidates for the office of teaching. Females have to go through a certain system of preparation for the tuition of their own sex.

The election and nomination of schoolmasters are decided by the committee and inspector of schools conjointly, who generally apply to the seminaries above mentioned for teachers, and never accept one unless he is recommended according to law. The appointment is ratified by the provincial board, and sometimes by the ministerial authorities. Incompetent teachers are sometimes returned to their seminary for additional preparation; and no inefficient teaching nor lax discipline overlooked or permitted in the schools. The directors of schools are expected to be the guides and friends of the teachers. They are bound, says the law, especially to attend to the young masters, to give them

advice, set them right, and excite them to aim at perfection, by attending to the plans of more experienced masters, by forming conferences, and by studying the best works on education.

Of the children in the Prussian monarchy, between the ages of seven and fourteen, it is calculated that $\frac{1}{12}$ are educated in the public schools.

It must not be supposed that these regulations are always carried into effect;—they are sometimes evaded, or inadequately carried into practice.

After this compact and pleasing picture of the Prussian system of public education, it is natural to inquire into the results which it has actually produced. On this subject I find it impossible to produce any satisfactory authority. It is in vain to seek for results in the works of those who have only studied the plan in its program, and in decrees, and who have not looked into the farmhouse, the barrack, the manufactory, and the cottage, for the measure of its realisation.

Let me not be understood to speak with disrespect of a noble attempt to advance humanity; I only maintain, that such measures are to be tested by their operation on the mass of society, and that, in appreciating political experiments, we are not merely to analyse them upon paper. An admirable feature of it is the reverence which it encourages for the Christian religion. I am the last person to attach much weight to my own observations, but, in default of the remarks of others, I have not succeeded in discovering that the Prussian peasant or artisan is better informed, or more moral than his neighbours; his manners are not superior, nor does he appear to solace his hours of leisure more than others, with study, or books. But the formation of character is so intimately blended in Prussia with the military system, which converts every man into a soldier, for a certain period of his life, that it is difficult to ascertain the respective share which is to be ascribed to the various elements which combine to mould the individual. The most intelligent and best informed peasant in Europe has appeared to me to be the Scotch, while the Austrian rustic is perhaps the happiest.

CHAPTER XIII.

PRISONS AND PRISONERS IN GERMANY.

Introductory Remarks on the Discipline of Prisons. An account of the Prisons of Germany before their later improvements. Criminal Legislation in Austria. Present Condition and Statistics of the principal Prisons of Germany. Their degree of Security. State of Health, Medical Police, Diet, and Mortality. Modes of Inspection, Classification, Labour. Education, Elementary Instruction, Religious Instruction, Worship. Punishments. The care taken of the Prisoner on his liberation. Concluding Reflections.

One of the most gratifying features in the clouded countenance of our age is the attention which is devoted, more or less, in all civilised countries, to the improvement of prisons, and to criminal legislation and statistics. I shall make no apology, then, for the pages which are here set apart for the German side of the topic; and a few cursory observations on the state of prisons in England, will form no unsuitable introduction.

In the greater part of our county gaols a remarkable degree of cleanliness and neatness reigns throughout. This observation will not be considered trivial by those who appreciate the influence which these two qualities daily exercise over the health of the body, and the discipline of the mind. Among the borough and town gaols, and those placed under local jurisdiction, these characteristics are far less prominent, and sometimes, indeed, entirely disappear; but these blemishes, in the various shades in which they exist, seem to be derived rather from the narrow space and unsuitableness of the building, from the limited funds, the scanty salaries, and the insufficient service, than from wilful neglect on the part of the keepers, who, indeed, are often sensible of evils which they do not possess the power of remedying.

From the recent introduction of silence into some prisons, I have not yet been able to trace a single instance of mischievous

consequences. My conversations with prisoners, officers, surgeons, chaplains and magistrates, have not led to the discovery of any case in which disease, either of body or of mind, has been affirmed by any party to have grown out of this mode of discipline. The experiment, it is true, has not yet been practised for a long period; but the persons most conversant with the interior of prisons, who have favoured me with their conclusions on this head, pronounce decidedly in its favour, and entertain an expectation of its probable efficacy in increasing the repugnance to incarceration. But great vigilance is necessary in order to ensure a real, and not merely a nominal observance of it.

Solitary, or separate confinement, respecting the propriety and practicability of which opinions are divided, and experience has as yet been only short and limited, cannot be generally adopted in our present buildings. Nor ought solitary confinement to be adopted in any prison, without defining the mode, in which alone, consistently with humanity, and with just attention to mental and bodily health, it can be carried into operation. The details are not to be resigned to the caprice of individuals, to makeshifts, and to accident. Separate confinement for the *convicted*, should never be imposed, for any term exceeding a few days, unless accompanied by the following indispensable conditions, which are the more necessary to be complied with in our gaols, because they have not been usually constructed, like the American penitentiaries, with this express object in view.

First. A cell moderately warmed in the winter.

Second. A cell light, well ventilated, and large enough to enable the prisoner to labour or to read with ease, and to move about in freely.

Third. A provision of suitable work or of books.

Fourth. Daily separate visits of the chaplain, the surgeon, and the gaoler, with a privilege of briefly conversing with them.

Fifth. Daily exercise, of at least one hour, not taken all at one time.

Sixth. A discretionary power confided to the surgeon, of allowing still more exercise, when he thinks it advisable.

Seventh. A visit made at least once a month to each prisoner thus confined, by one of the visiting magistrates.

But in only a small number of prisons, as they are at present constituted, with their existing cells, officers, funds, and salaries, can such confinement be safely enforced. The conditions above proposed, would necessitate an entire remodelling in many instances: and the magistrates and the public will not easily consent to try a new, and as yet uncertain experiment, at a large cost, after having already incurred heavy disbursements on the former plan of classification; and least of all at a time when all are anxious to reduce the amount of rates.

I am led thus to the conclusion that it would be most inexpedient to employ any compulsory interference in favour of separate confinement, which would only conduct to an irregular, inadequate, and unfair trial of it in prisons not fully prepared. If any evil accidents should arise from partial and premature attempts, the public confidence would be shaken, and a sudden reaction and abandonment of the whole system might be the unexpected result.

I believe, however, that it will be utterly impracticable to carry this system into *general* operation in England, on account of the enormous expense attendant on it, if it is carried out in a humane spirit; but if it must be tried at all, it would probably answer best if confined to a few penitentiaries erected and arranged for this particular object. But, even in such places, I must express my earnest dissent from any plan which contemplates the continual confinement of the prisoner in his cell, without any portion of daily exercise in the open air.

Wherever this system is applied to *untried* prisoners, they ought to be permitted, in addition to the precautions above specified, to enjoy a *double* portion of exercise, as well as *ample* means of intercourse with their friends: but, rather than at once to level the ancient distinction between a house of detention and a house of correction, it would be preferable, in my opinion, to allow to the *untried* the free use of their yards, restricting them, at the same time, from conversation with each other, and from

the dangerous privilege of a day-room*. Yet, however desirable it may be to restrain prisoners of every class from associating together, and mutually corrupting each other, in day-rooms, it is not safe to close the door of the only room in which a fire burns in winter, unless some means have been employed to impart a moderate warmth to the cells.

Previously, indeed, to any extension of the plan of confinement in separate cells, it appears highly necessary to consider the various modes of warming the cells which may be most conveniently adopted in different prisons. This is a point which requires the immediate attention of those who may contemplate the introduction of any such system into the establishments which they superintend.

There have been three æras in the history of prisons, in England, each of which has been successively and almost inevitably forced onwards by its predecessor. The first period of neglect, filth, and disease, aroused the attention of the great Howard, and of those who immediately trod in his steps; public feeling was awakened throughout Europe, and amendment began. But indiscreet liberality went too far in some cases; under the auspices of kind, but imprudent reformers, a prison with us became at length a more luxurious place than some farm-houses; certain individuals found it so comfortable, that they even committed petty offences in order to secure the privilege of admission. This second stage has led to our actual point; at which, while every suitable provision is made for bodily and mental health, we endeavour to render a prison so disagreeable an abode, that no one may carelessly enter, nor be tempted to return.

We shall commence our account of German prisons, with a rapid glance at the state of those establishments at the period when the modern views began to pass from theory into practice. As early as 1780, the labours of Howard were naturalized in Germany, and since that time, the appearance of numerous writings, and the publication of some isolated govern-

* Some of the above remarks are extracted from my "Second Report on the Prisons of the Southern and Western Districts," laid before Parliament in 1837.

ment-edicts, have given proof that the ideas of the English philanthropist have not fallen upon an ungrateful soil. But, still, these were feeble precursors of improvement, and, as late as 1803, we find the Prussian minister, Arnim, declaring "that the state of the Prussian prisons was such, that palliative remedies were no longer of any avail, and that it was absolutely necessary to attack the abuses which exist in them at the root."

The prisons of Bavaria, according to Baron Weveld, were in the same miserable condition. At this period indeed, throughout Germany, the places of confinement for criminals were generally subterraneous, dark and moist; and, in many, no provision whatever was made for supplying warmth in winter. The cells were always infested with vermin, and the prisoners in the most filthy and abject condition. The government of the prisons was in the hands of numbers of officials of all descriptions, and was properly attended to by none. The ministers of the interior, of justice, and of war, the commanders of fortresses, provincial governors, consistories, and even private individuals, were in the habit of interfering in the management of different prisons. No general system was ever proposed, much less established. In many cases, prisons were united to hospitals and lunatic asylums, and even to workhouses and orphan asylums.

Prisons in Germany, at the time of which we are speaking, were extremely numerous; few contained two hundred prisoners, and the average number of their inmates was estimated at from forty to fifty. Consequently, the number of persons employed in their management was very great in proportion to the sum total of prisoners, but was small, and altogether insufficient, in reference to each individual prison. Little importance was at that time attached to the subject of criminal legislation, and we are now surprised at the smallness of the sum which was then allotted in the budgets to the maintenance and improvement of prisons. The efficiency, for the purpose of confinement, of the establishments in question, may be estimated by the following facts, extracted from authentic reports on Prussian prisons.

All the prisoners confined in the fortress of Gleiwitz escaped in a single night, in the year 1800. At Wesel, nearly a whole

band of brigands, who had been condemned to hard labour for life, escaped from confinement. In 1799, five great offenders escaped from Schweidnitz; in 1800, three from Cosel, and, among other instances, twelve from Clarenburg. No measures were taken for observing the conduct of the prisoners, and for preventing that communication between them, the effect of which is to train up to crime the less hardened offender. In many prisons, the male and female culprits were suffered to remain together both night and day; in others, they were separated at night, but, in scarcely any, were proper measures taken for their complete separation. Again, some of these establishments were always extremely crowded, whilst others were nearly empty, and had become entirely useless.

According to Arnim, whose facts are authentic, the house of correction at Colberg did not contain one prisoner in 1790; in 1791, only one prisoner was admitted into it, and in 1796, only three. On the other hand, at Wesel, the neglect of management and want of room reduced several prisoners, whose reason, on their admission, was somewhat affected, to a state of raging madness. The inmates of most of these places were either entirely deprived of the light of day, as at Custrin or at Züllichau, or received it only through a very narrow aperture, as at Rathenow, Lenzen, and Falkenburg. The atmosphere of almost all was unhealthy to a dangerous degree, and the filthy condition of the interior contributed not a little to increase this dreadful evil. At Baireuth, it was necessary to employ artificial means for the purpose of bringing a supply of fresh air into the establishment; at Dantzic, the moisture was so great, that water streamed down the walls at every season of the year. At Berlin, Warsing and Schlechtendahl, reporters on the state of the Stadt-Voigtei prison, declared, that "it was no small sacrifice to visit a prison in such a state." At Minden, to use the words of the provincial government, "the prison was scarcely good enough for a stable." At Baireuth, in 1799, it was stated in a report, as a great act of kindness, that the prisoners were allowed fresh straw for their bedding every three months.

In 1803, there was only one prison in all Prussia, that of

Tapiau, where the criminals received necessary clothing at the expense of the establishment. In all others, this was only granted as a favour and in cases of extreme necessity. At Berlin, in the Stadt-Voigtei prison, a new shirt was now and then given, at the expense of the establishment, to those who were reduced to a state of absolute nakedness. With respect to the food of the prisoners, the utmost irregularity and uncertainty prevailed. In some places, as at Roessel, it was good, and perhaps too abundant, but in most cases it was furnished by contractors, who were not subject to any control. At Baireuth, according to Völdendorff, the messes of the prisoners were examined by a physician, and found not only inadequate to nutrition, but positively inimical to the health. A great cause of the perpetuation of these abuses was the fact, that the contractors for furnishing the diet were themselves petty officers of the prison. On the attention paid in those times to the prisoners who were ill, let us quote again the reporters on the Stadt-Voigtei at Berlin: "The sick," they say, "are destitute of every kind of attention; and so great is the neglect under which they suffer, that, in general, they prefer to quit the infirmary and return to the wards of the prison; where, though they are less commodiously lodged, they, at least, hope to experience the compassion and aid of their companions in misfortune."

At the time of which we are treating, there were three descriptions of prisons in Germany; viz., houses of arrest and detention, houses of correction, and fortresses. In the former, no sort of employment was assigned to the prisoners, and in the fortresses, they were only employed on the public works. The houses of correction *(Zuchthäuser)* were superior in this as well as in several other respects, though, in some even of them, no work whatever was allotted to the prisoners, and in many others, the system of employment was so imperfectly followed out, that it availed but little for any profitable purpose. In some places, as at Stettin, Stargard, and Colberg, it was left to the discretion of the prisoners, whether they would work or not. No person watched their labours, and the only masters they had to stimulate them to exertion were hunger and want. It was quite a matter

of chance, whether their employments had any share in training them to a future life of activity and industry. The most common trades were not exercised in the prisons, and the occupations almost universally pursued, were spinning, carding wool, polishing glass, and rasping wood. The profits resulting from the labours of the prisoners reverted in every case to contractors, who farmed this privilege at a small rent, and the former were rarely encouraged to work for their own benefit after their allotted task was finished, which would have given them an opportunity of earning something to assist them after their release.

No attention whatever was paid to the moral and religious improvement of the prisoners. In a few of the gaols, there was a chaplain, but the greater part were without any religious instructor. In one alone, that of Halle, the prisoners were allowed to have private conferences with the chaplain. During the eighteenth century, several of the places of religious worship attached to prisons were shut up, or converted to other purposes.

Before we pass to a description of the present state of prisons in Germany, we shall say a few words on the criminal legislation of Austria, which has preserved a distinct and somewhat remarkable character. Austria has been severely reproached for having so frequently recourse to the bastinado, and for the severity of its "*schwereste Kerkerstrafe*" (closest or hardest imprisonment). But we must recollect that the bastinado is employed, at the present day, with but few exceptions, in all the prisons of Germany, and in all the "bagnes" of France, and, we may add, in several penitentiaries of America. The Austrian government, indeed, was one of the first which endeavoured to prevent the abuse of this punishment. With regard to the *schwereste Kerkerstrafe*, we must not forget, that this punishment is inflicted by a code, which admits neither of transportation nor of forced labour, and which does not ordain capital punishment, like the French, for numerous crimes, such as, coining, infanticide, and arson. Moreover, says Jenull*, it is not inflicted in a manner which can be injurious to the health of the

* *Das Oesterreichische Criminalrecht nach seinen Gründen und seinem Geiste*, 1820.

culprit; those who suffer it have as much fresh air as the nature of their labour will permit; their diet is similar to that with which many poor families are contented, and, finally, it is only had recourse to in the following extreme cases; viz., misprision of treason; infanticide, when committed upon a legitimate child; arson, robbery of an aggravated description, and as a commutation of the punishment of death. Austria, too, it must be recollected had already banished from her code, preliminary torture and all the barbarous accessories of capital punishment, before France had made any real reform in her penal laws. At the present time, the criminal legislation of Austria is one of the most humane and enlightened in Europe. The directors of gaols are enjoined, in taking measures to secure a prisoner, neither to wound his feelings nor his person. The prisoners are always to be treated by the directors as well as by the gaolers with great caution, mildness, and attention. Improper modes of conduct, or gross and offensive acts on the part of the gaolers towards the prisoners, are to be punished with the greatest severity*. In a repertory of jurisprudence, published at Vienna, there is an article upon the moral improvement of convicts, which displays considerable talent. The system of the author, who was for some time director of one of the largest Austrian prisons, is that of Arnim and Weveld. Labour, classification, religious instruction, elementary education, he admits, and recommends to be actively employed; but the state, he says, ought only to make use of them as furnishing an opportunity of improvement to the prisoner, and is not to disturb itself about the effects which they may produce upon his moral system. In a word, it ought to do that which is in its power, happen what may. "Every other system," he continues, "will only lead to despotism. The heart of man is a sanctuary which one friend opens to another, and into which the eye of God penetrates, but the state cannot look within it, without entering upon a dangerous track."

We shall now speak of the present state of the prisons of Germany under the heads of, their security, health, inspection

* See Pratobevera, "*Materialen für Gesetzkunde und Rechtspflege in den Oesterreichischen Staaten.*" *Wien*, 1816.

and classification, labour, and moral and religious instruction. Under each head, the principal prisons of the respective states will be instanced.

With respect to *Security*, we shall commence with the Prussian prison of Naugard. The severe discipline prevailing here, which is altogether of a military nature, has produced the most beneficial results. It is well adapted to the character of men of brutalized feelings, since it serves to repress their inclination to disorder. Nevertheless, the director is far from finding in a rigorous discipline the only guarantee for the security of the establishment, and he is, above everything, careful to distinguish mere signs of obedience and subordination amongst his prisoners, from that internal and involuntary respect with which they ought to be inspired, on recognising the moral object of the system to which they are submitted. A new floor of this prison has lately been constructed, which has been set apart for the younger criminals; it is composed of twelve chambers (capable of containing from one to seven prisoners each), and of three rooms for working in, sufficiently large to contain fifty individuals.

The prison of Luckau, also in Prussia, was formerly a convent, and from 1747 to 1818 was at once a house of correction, an asylum for lunatics, a workhouse, an orphan asylum, and a seminary for schoolmasters. These different establishments were successively separated from each other, and since 1827 the prison of Luckau has received a regular organization, and has been placed under the direction of a committee, two of the members of which are appointed by the king, and two by the states. This establishment is composed of four different buildings, a large garden, a terrace, and outhouses for cooking. The first of the buildings, called the old house, has three stories; it is one hundred and sixty-four feet long, fifty-three of which are occupied by a handsome chapel, which is provided with an organ. It contains only male prisoners, except in the washing and shoemaking rooms. The prisoners of the most dangerous class sleep by twos or threes in chambers shut up by bolts, and those of the second or less dangerous class sleep together in one room. The new house, erected in 1768, contains a church, a

dwelling-house for the director, and the necessary accommodations for making tapestry, which is the principal occupation of the convicts; it is used for the reception of females only. The third building is sixty-two feet in length; it is an infirmary, and contains also baths, and work-rooms for dyers. The fourth is the dwelling of the physician and the five masters of the works. All these buildings are in a situation favourable to the health of their inmates, they are surrounded by small gardens, and two plots of grass, which are used as bleaching and dyeing grounds. There is a military guard in the prison both night and day, and at nine o'clock the porter has to deliver up the keys to the inspector. In winter and in dark nights, the court is lighted by four lanterns. One hundred and thirty-nine prisoners were recently in confinement at Luckau, six of whom are imprisoned for life; nine of the others were confined as vagabonds.

Another Prussian prison, that of Schweidnitz, which was completed in 1801, consists of two great buildings, formerly the property of the Jesuits, containing twenty-three work-rooms, an infirmary, dormitories, lodgings for a part of the officers, a large room for prayer, and a refectory. The prison is large enough for three hundred culprits. The cells are under continual inspection during the night. The experiment has been tried here of placing the culprits without the walls of the prison, either in service, or in apprenticeship; of 1055 thus disposed of, 451 escaped, of whom 309 were retaken; 66 other convicts escaped from the prison itself. The prisoners who escape, and who are retaken, wear a yellow sleeve, and are not permitted, like the others, to purchase salt, butter and tobacco with the surplus of their gains.

The prison or House of Correction (*Landarbeitshaus*) of Brauweiler, formerly a Benedictine abbey, is two miles distant from Cologne. It is a fine building of one story, 269 feet in length, 31 in width, and 34 in height, and was erected in the middle of the eighteenth century. It has sixteen acres of garden belonging to it, surrounded by a wall ten feet high, and seventy-two acres of arable land without the enclosure. It is capable of containing six hundred prisoners, and is maintained by the four districts of Cologne, Düsseldorf, Aix-la-Chapelle, and Coblenz.

During the years 1811 to 1825, 665 prisoners died, and 520 escaped, out of 7739 admitted. During the year 1826, this prison received thirty-six boys and seventeen girls under the age of sixteen, and one hundred and seventy two men and eighty-three women above that age, in all, three hundred and eight persons; two hundred and forty-one of these were set at liberty, forty-seven died, four succeeded in escaping, and fourteen who attempted to escape were recaptured.

The prison of Cologne contains eighty-six apartments of different descriptions; attached to it are several courts, and a garden of three-quarters of an acre, surrounded by a wall about thirty feet high. The instances of escape from it are very rare. The prisoners are guarded by six soldiers who are reinforced at night. The dimensions of the building do not permit the prisoners to have separate apartments.

There are five old prisons at Hamburg, three of which, *die Pferdmarktswache*, *die Grossneumarktswache*, and *die Gänsemarktswache*, are houses of arrest; two only, *die Roggenkiste* and *das Spinnhaus*, are for the reception of criminals properly so called. We shall speak first of the *Spinnhaus*, which is the most remarkable, and then of the new prison, which is not included in the above. The former, with the courts which are attached to it, comprises a space of 17,370 square feet; the church alone occupies 2975. On entering, we find on the left hand a porter's lodge, and on the right a dwelling for the steward. Passing through the kitchen of the latter, we come to a cellar which contains the potatoes and other provisions which it is necessary to keep in such a place. A little further is the bread store-room. On the right, too, is a large copper basin which is filled with water by an hydraulic machine in the city. Pipes conduct the water into the kitchen, to the places where the servants and work-people are occupied in washing utensils. We next come to the kitchens, where there are copper cauldrons, each capable of containing a sufficient portion for three hundred persons. Above the kitchen, wood is kept.

On the first floor are the rooms of the persons employed in the prison, and the large presses which contain the prisoners' linen

and clothing. A small staircase leads hence to the first work-room, where the thread is prepared, which is afterwards brought into a side room to be twisted. In the doors of this room, as well as of all the others, small inspection windows are placed. The rooms for twisting, and also those for spinning, which come next to them, are the prisoners' dormitories. Behind the latter are two dark cells, which are used for disciplinary punishments. A staircase leads from this part of the establishment to the first court, and the visitor sees on his left in descending it, a place (*der Spinnwinkel*), which contains seven cells for the greatest criminals. Fifty other cells of this description are dispersed throughout the establishment. On the left side of the court of which we have spoken, is the entrance to the church. The building in the centre is kept for women and for master-workmen. All the windows are furnished with bars of iron, so disposed, as to render impossible all communication between the prisoners of different rooms.

The new prison (*Detentions gefängniss*) is intended for individuals suspected of crimes, and for those who have been convicted of slight offences. It consists of a principal building, with two wings at right angles. The underground chambers, the ground floor, and the first story, are arched; the staircases are of stone. The chambers on each floor open into corridors, well lighted, and well ventilated. The apartments underground are quite free from moisture; amongst them are not only the kitchen and store-rooms, but seven or eight cells for prisoners sentenced to solitary confinement. Other cells, intended for the same purpose, are placed on the third floor; these only receive light from above. The height of these chambers varies from eleven to twelve feet. The windows are very high, and if it were not for the gratings which cover them, the destination of the building would be forgotten. The first and second floors are exclusively reserved for prisoners. The chambers receive but little light, because the windows are very narrow. No attempt has been made here to apportion the degree of light, and of other conveniences in the rooms, to the greater or less degree of criminality of the inmates; all the rooms are alike in these respects.

The prison of Glückstadt, the best in the German dominions

of the king of Denmark, was organised in 1819. It is a building of one story, without any subterraneous apartments, and its two wings run into two different streets. On the ground-floor, on one side, are the lodgings of the officers of the prison, the kitchen, the bakehouse, the store-room, and the refectory; on the other side, are four work-rooms, two of which communicate with the street, and two with the court, which is separated from them by a corridor, and a room where the work is distributed. The first story contains rooms for the sick, situated on each side of a long corridor, and work-rooms communicating with the court and the store-rooms. Above the refectory is the church, and above the work-rooms are the night-cells, separated from one another by a staircase and a shoemaker's work-room. The court, which forms a square, is terminated on the third side by a building of one story intended for carrying on different trades; on the fourth side, is an isolated building, containing fire-engines, and different apparatus.

This prison is reserved exclusively for men. The women are confined in another building of one story, situated in the middle of a square adjoining the principal prison. The prison of Glückstadt is so constructed as to permit the watchmen to observe the convicts without being perceived by them. The use of chains is almost entirely suppressed; in 1825, they were worn by ten prisoners only. The culprits who are confined for life are placed in the rooms which command the most extensive prospect of the surrounding country.

Notwithstanding its imperfections, the prison of Glückstadt is now made the model of all others which are constructed in that country.

The prison of Preetz, also in Holstein, would seem to have been allowed to remain, in order to serve as a means of comparison between the old and new systems. All the rooms of which it is composed, are subterraneous; they receive light and air only through grated openings, and the atmosphere which is breathed within them is totally corrupted. The gaoler, himself, speaks of them with horror. Unhappily, many of the prisons of

the duchy of Schleswig-Holstein are in an equally bad state; the instances of escape are very numerous.

We now pass to the South of Germany, and first to the prison of Mannheim. This establishment contains about two hundred culprits. It consists of two stories, besides the ground floor, and the subterraneous apartments; it is situated in the centre of the city, and is surrounded by a court. The church and sacristy are on the ground floor. This floor contains, also, besides one large and two small sleeping-rooms, a chamber of observation of the governor (*Zuchtmeister*), another chamber for judicial examinations, a small office, a chamber for linen, four vaulted rooms which receive the light by small, round windows, communicating with the court, and which are capable of being warmed during winter, and two necessaries. The upper part of the church, which is destined for the prisoners, is on the first floor. On the second floor is a large work-room, above the church, a small one, and several sleeping-rooms. On the north-west side of the court is a small garden, a kitchen, washhouse, storehouses for bread and for wood, a pig-stye and a poultry yard. The prison is bounded on the west by different buildings, and by the residence of the director; on the south, and on the east, by private houses, which are separated from it by a wall, common to both.

With the exception of this last boundary, which does not present sufficient obstacles to communication with persons without, the Mannheim prison leaves but little to desire under the head of security. Various plots have been formed by the prisoners, during twenty-five recent years, for obtaining their liberty, but they have all been discovered in time; and of four persons who have attempted to escape, during the last sixteen years, only one has succeeded.

The prison of Freiburg, situated in the city of that name, is bounded on the north, north-east, and west, by streets; on the south and east, it is not confined by buildings; a very large court surrounds it on three sides; and the whole of the establishment is surrounded by a wall, twenty feet in height. The principal

building is two hundred and twenty-seven feet long, and consists of two stories. On the first floor is an infirmary for the men, and six prisoners' dormitories. The work-rooms are on the second floor. The north-eastern extremity of the building is traversed by a canal, which receives the filth and impurities, and prevents any corruption of the atmosphere.

Judging from the actual state of the dormitories and work-rooms, this prison is capable of containing one hundred and sixty men, and forty women; the infirmary for the men has room for twenty-three persons; that for the women for seven. Thirteen individuals are charged with the duty of inspecting the conduct of the prisoners, and of superintending their labours. The military appointed to guard the prison, are a subaltern officer, a corporal and nine soldiers.

The prison of Kaiserslautern, in Rhenish Bavaria, is at once a place of confinement for persons condemned to hard labour, a house of confinement, and a house of correction. Those who are condemned to hard labour have a chain attached to each foot with a weight at the end of it, or, if the nature of their labours will permit, they are coupled two and two. All criminals are chained by one leg during the night, as soon as they are discovered to be dangerous. All correspondence with persons either in or out of the prison is forbidden them. If letters are addressed to them, the director opens them, ascertains their contents, and afterwards communicates to them all which he thinks proper for them to know. Prisoners of a less degree of criminality are not so rigorously treated.

The next head under which we are to consider German prisons is that of their *Salubrity;* and here we shall allude to the lodging of the prisoners, the air and exercise afforded them, their cleanliness, food, dress, and the treatment of the sick.

And, first, in respect of lodging: the German prisons are no longer so crowded as formerly. Prussia has distinguished herself in attending to this point. Austria has provided in her penal code for enlarging the interior of her prisons.

The following table shows the number of inmates in the

prisons of Wurtemberg, in 1829, and, also, the number for which they were respectively built.

	Houses of Police at			Houses of Correction at		Fortress of Hohen-Asperg.	House of Correction at Gotteszell.	Total.
	Heilbronn.	Rottenburg.	Ulm.	Markgroningen.	Ludwigsburg.			
Number of Prisoners for which they were built	100	100	105	200	670	18	220	1413
Number of Prisoners, January 1, 1829.	142	76	98	201	675	6	222	1420

At Glückstadt, the work-rooms are large and well-lighted; on the floor are chests which serve as seats for the workmen, and contain their property. There is glass in the doors, through which the prisoners are inspected. In the sleeping-room, the beds are in a line, but, sometimes, the want of space renders it necessary to place one above another. Each prisoner has his separate bed, which is composed of a mattress and pillow, stuffed with chaff, two sheets, and one coverlit in summer and two in winter. The aged, who are in ill-health, have feather-beds. The prisoners have clean sheets once a month.

At Freiburg, the bedsteads are of oak, contain two persons, and are removed two feet and a half from each other. The more dangerous prisoners, and those who are in ill-health, sleep alone. The bed consists of a mattress, weighing thirty pounds, of a pillow stuffed with chaff, of two bleached hempen sheets, and of two woollen coverlits in winter and one in summer. By the side of each bed is a spittoon; and in each room, are two tables for washing, and water for drinking; each prisoner has his washing-basin and towel. There is a night-stool in every sleeping-room. The rooms are lighted by two lanterns, and in all there are small windows, through which the watchmen are strictly bound to look into them every quarter of an hour.

At Cologne, also, the nature of the building will not allow of each prisoner having a cell and a bed to himself. Iron bedsteads have been introduced here into the infirmary, and are about to be so throughout the prison.

At Hamburg, the system of heating the new prison with warm water conveyed in pipes has been adopted.

With respect to air and exercise in German prisons, we may remark, that at Freiburg, fresh air is admitted every day into the corridors, refectories, bed and working-rooms, and that they are fumigated with juniper.

At Naugard, the air is changed twice a day, and such prisoners as do not work in the open air, are taken every day into the court of the prison, and remain there for some time.

At Glückstadt, the prisoners have large courts to walk in; where they remain for half an hour at a time.

In the prison lately constructed at Hamburg, the only place for exercise is a court thirty feet wide, and sixty-nine long, which is enclosed by a high wall; but it must not be forgotten, that it is merely a place of detention, and that prisoners never remain in it long.

An Austrian lawyer, a manager of prisons, has well observed that in ensuring the cleanliness of prisons, we ought not to fear the charge of affectation. Cleanliness, he truly says, is one of those qualities, the habit of which having been once acquired is never lost. In the Austrian prison of Linz, which serves as a model for all the others in that empire, the prisoners, both male and female, are charged with the duty of cleaning the building.

In the prison of Mannheim, there are baths, and the prisoners are supplied with soap and towels. They are shaved once in eight days, and their hair is cut as often as necessary. The bed and work-rooms are regularly washed, and are whitewashed once a year.

At Luchau, in Prussia, the prisoners are obliged to wash themselves after every meal, and thoroughly every Saturday evening. Their body-linen and towels are changed every week; their sheets every three months, except when they are ill. Twice a year the mattresses and pillows are washed, and stuffed with clean straw; the wooden bedsteads are also taken to pieces, and washed with warm water.

At Naugard, Cologne, and at the fortress of Coburg, arrangements similar to the foregoing are in force, and in the latter, a

reward is given annually to those prisoners who are most noted for their cleanliness.

At Glückstadt, the rooms are swept every day, and washed once a month.

At Güstrow, in Mecklenburg-Schwerin, deviations from cleanliness are severely punished; the sleeping-cells, passages, and staircases are fumigated every day with vinegar, the work-rooms are washed every three weeks; smoking is forbidden, and the prisoners are obliged to wash every time they quit work.

At Freiburg, the prisoners have a bath every month, and a foot-bath every fifteen days.

At Kaiserslautern, in Rhenish Bavaria, the work-rooms, corridors, and sleeping-cells are swept every day, and washed once a week.

With respect to diet, we have collected the following facts: At Naugard, the government only supports those prisoners who can produce a certificate of poverty. Provisions are furnished by contract. Prisoners of a superior class are obliged to adopt the same diet as the others; except that they are allowed sometimes to purchase meat for dinner and soup for supper.

At Schweidnitz, the prisoners' breakfast consists of a soup made of bread, flour, or potatoes; for dinner they have peas, oatmeal, potatoes, turnips or sourkraut, and two pounds of bread; once a fortnight they have a quarter of a pound of meat, and on holidays half a pound.

The composition of the soup for two hundred persons, in the prison of Glückstadt, is as follows: Three pecks of oatmeal, a large quantity of potatoes, four pecks of carrots, and from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and thirty-five pounds of fresh meat (ten ounces per head). Sometimes, they have bacon-soup, and, sometimes, the Rumford soup.

At Dresden, the prisoners have soup for breakfast, vegetables for dinner, and two pounds of bread each *per diem*.

At Mannheim, each prisoner has, daily, one pound and a half of good bread, half a pint of soup and as much vegetables; and on Sundays and holidays, one pound and a quarter of meat; before trial, they have the same quantity of meat every other day.

The provisions are furnished by a contractor, under the superintendance of the director.

At Brauweiler, in Rhenish Prussia, the diet is similar to the above, but the prisoners who are sentenced to hard labour, receive an extra allowance of meat, soup, beer, brandy, and bread. The aged are allowed a little tobacco.

At Cologne, the prisoners in good health have one pound and a half of black bread daily; for breakfast, soup composed of three ounces and a half of wheat flour, half an ounce of butter and half an ounce of salt. The dinner consists alternately of potatoes, sauerkraut, oatmeal, peas, beans, and lentils.

At Güstrow, the prisoner has one pound and a half of rye-bread daily, two quarts of beer, soup for breakfast, and vegetables for dinner; besides this, the prisoners of the first class have one-third of a pound of meat twice a week, and the other five days, herring, sausages or tripe; those of the second class have one-third of a pound of meat on Sundays, and tripe twice a week. Those of the first class have butter and cheese in the evening, and those of the second, salt to eat with their remaining bread.

In Austria, the prisoner has one pound of bread *per diem;* a farinaceous dish with milk three times a week; and on Sundays, a soup with a quarter of a pound of meat, and the farinaceous dish again; but by working industriously, he is allowed to improve his condition.

In respect to *clothing*, the prisoner at Mannheim receives the following articles of dress at the expense of the state; viz., a cap and waistcoat of cloth, two pairs of trowsers of canvas ticking, and two under-waistcoats of the same stuff, a woollen waistcoat, two pairs of worsted or cotton stockings, three shirts, two pocket handkerchiefs, and two cravats. The colour of the dress is gray for those guilty of lighter offences, and gray mixed with black for the others.

At Luckau, the prisoners condemned for six months or less, retain the dress which they bring into the prison; the others, unless the committee of the establishment permit the contrary in some instances, all wear the costume of the establishment, which is gray and yellow.

At Brauweiler, all the culprits wear the prison-dress, which is good and warm.

At Cologne, dresses are only given in cases of necessity; they consist of jackets and trowsers of gray cloth, shirts, socks and caps; those who work have leather shoes; the others, wooden ones. The women have striped dresses which wash, shoes and stockings.

At Hamburg, the culprits on entering prison lay aside their own dresses, and receive from the establishment, three shirts, two pairs of stockings, a pair of trowsers, a jacket and a waistcoat.

At Kaiserslautern, the prisoners are dressed in gray cloth; they have an unbleached linen cravat, which is changed every week; a waistcoat, an under-waistcoat, a pair of linen trowsers, which are washed as often as necessary, stockings clean every week, shoes, a shirt clean every week and bleached twice a year, one pocket handkerchief per week, and a cloak of gray cloth for the cold weather, as well as a cap of the same material.

The women's dress is composed of a black cap, a neck-handkerchief and an apron of unbleached linen; a black gown and a jacket of striped stuff; a pocket-handkerchief, worsted stockings, shoes and a shift; their linen is changed as often as that of the men. The prisoners condemned for criminal offences wear coloured dresses, half gray and half brown.

In Austria, the prisoners' dress consists of a jacket and trowsers, of linen in summer, and of common cloth in winter, of a pair of shoes and a cloth-cap. The women have two pair of stays, one for winter the other for summer, a gown, an apron, thread stockings and a pair of slippers: their linen is changed every week.

We now come to the *treatment of the sick* in the German prisons. At Plessenburg, in Bavaria, the mortality of the sick is two and a half per cent. The beds in the infirmary are composed of a paillasse, a mattress, a pillow, a coverlit, and sheets which are changed every day. The patients are treated with the greatest care, and are allowed both meat and wine when necessary.

At Mannheim as soon as a prisoner is ill, the physician orders him to the infirmary, which is a large place, very airy and lighted

by five windows. The salary of the physician is 300 florins, that of the surgeon, 133 florins. Patients suffering under contagious diseases are kept separate from the rest. The proportion of the sick to the whole number of culprits is as one to seven. When signs of mental alienation are manifested by a prisoner, he is confined alone, and if the disorder continues, is sent to the Lunatic Asylum.

At Naugard, the men employed in the infirmary are taken from the prisoners of the first class; the nurses may be the wives of the prison-officers. As soon as a prisoner is ill, he is transferred from the control of the director to that of the physician. In 1828, when intermittent fevers were very frequent, the mortality of all the inmates was one in sixty-six, and in 1829, when they reappeared, one in forty-six.

At Schweidnitz the mortality is five per cent. At Brauweiler, in 1826, 746 prisoners were admitted into the infirmary, and 980 others were treated for lighter complaints in the prison itself; of these 1726, 1587 were cured, and forty-seven died.

At Freiburg, the physician is obliged, when the circumstances of the case require it, to see his patients two or three times a day, and always to visit the prison daily; he is also bound to send in a detailed report at the end of the year. At Kaiserslautern the physician sees that the regulations of cleanliness are fully carried into effect, superintends the diet and clothing of the prisoners, and visits daily.

We now come to speak of *Inspection*, the third of the heads under which we proposed to treat of German prisons: and we may remark, at the outset, that they are not well constructed for facilitating this object. In the prisons of Southern Germany the culprits are generally compelled to be silent during the hours of labour; at Freiburg it is forbidden to the prisoners to speak, at any time, to any one except the director and the superintendants; and the punishment here for communicating by signs is more severe than for breaking silence. They are not even allowed to raise their eyes to look at the visitors of the establishment. Their conduct is incessantly watched, and any negligences in performing devotional duties are severely punished. At Aix-la-

Chapelle, the superintendance is very imperfect, being chiefly intrusted to the director, the task-master, and to three old soldiers in bad health, who often require as much watching as the prisoners.

At Naugard this duty is exercised by the inspector of police, the inspector of the work, and by twelve superintendants who are armed and accoutred like serjeants of police. They remain with the prisoners all day, except when they have other duties to fulfil in the establishment. In this prison, the bell rings for rising at four in summer and half-past six in winter, when the superintendants and steward attend to see that the prisoners wash themselves properly, and keep the prison clean; then they order the prison to be fumigated throughout. Breakfast follows, when the superintendants receive from the director his orders for the day, of which they begin to regulate the execution as soon as the meal is finished. Half an hour after labour has ceased, viz., at half-past eight in summer, and at half-past four in winter, the bell rings for the prisoners to be conducted to their cells. At Güstrow the prisoners rise all the year round at four, and retire to their cells at nine.

In Austria the prisoners rise at five, make their beds, open their windows, fumigate, and afterwards wash at the fountains in the court, under the eyes of the guard. There are morning-prayers at a quarter to six, after which the prisoners are conducted to work. At seven they have one pound and a half of bread each, which is to serve them all day. At eleven, they enter the bed-rooms where they pray in common; each then goes to fetch his dinner; they are allowed from dinner to mid-day for recreation. They finish work at seven; on Saturdays, at six. They retire to rest, after evening-prayers, at a quarter to eight in winter, and at a quarter to nine in summer.

The principle of *Classification* has been successively acted upon in most of the prisons of Germany. At Naugard, the men are divided into three classes, and the women into two. The divisions are founded on the degree of crime and on the severity of the punishment, but as the latter does not always afford a just indication of the viciousness of the prisoner, this rule admits of exceptions founded on signs of repentance exhibited by different culprits.

At Luckau the sexes are rigorously separated, and lodged in different buildings. The men are divided into two classes, one of which is composed of the principal criminals and also of those who appear to be dangerous characters, whatever may be the degree of the offence which they are expiating at the time; the second class consists of those who are imprisoned for a comparatively short period, and who are not regarded as dangerous.

In Rhenish Prussia classification of prisoners is still imperfect; at Cologne, the sexes are separated, but prisoners of the same sex are not classified. A separate locality has, however, been recently granted to those who exhibit signs of good conduct. An edict of 1811 ordains the separation of different species of convicts in the duchy of Nassau. An ordinance of 1813 prescribed the separation of the young from the old in the prisons of Holstein, but it had not been generally carried into effect in 1828. There does not appear to be any classification at Glückstadt, but the efficiency of the system of superintendance somewhat counterbalances this defect. At Freiburg, the sexes only are separated; at Mannheim, besides this division, the culprits form two classes, and at Kaiserslautern, three.

In respect to the *Labour* which is executed by the culprits, the prisons of Germany deserve particular attention. The spinning and rasping which were formerly carried on in these establishments were doubly objectionable, as affording but little pecuniary profit, and being of little service to the prisoners on their liberation. It was the jealousy of the different trades and corporations which restricted the employments of the prisoners, and the same obstacle prevails, though to a much less extent, at present. The prisoners at Munich are employed in an excellent manufactory of cloth, and as tailors and shoemakers. The cloth alone, which is of the quality worn by the higher classes, produces a revenue to the government of more than 50,000 florins yearly. The prisoners in Holstein are still, for the most part, unemployed; but not so in Schleswig, particularly at Glückstadt, where each prisoner is bound to do a certain quantity of work, which if he neglects he is punished; if he does more than is required, he is paid for the surplus. The prisoners are employed in spinning,

carding wool, knitting stockings, weaving, making pipes for fire-engines, and sail-cloth.

At Dresden the prisoners are employed in cleaving wood, breaking stones down to sand, and dragging coals through the town. The inhabitants can obtain the prisoners to do any sort of work for them, by paying five groschen per day to the establishment.

At Plessenburg there is a cloth manufactory and a bakehouse in the prison. The prisoners are allowed to work a little for themselves. The managers of the prison allow culprits who have been liberated to become the superintendants of the others when at work.

At Mannheim the employments of the prisoners are dressing hemp, weaving, knitting, making clothes, shoes, and, lately, manufacturing list. The superintendants of the different kinds of works receive four hundred florins a year. Some of the prisoners are employed in making the furniture of the establishment, and others are employed by the inhabitants, at their own houses, to cleave wood. At Freiburg the prisoners are employed in stone-cutting, weaving, carpenter's-work, and as masons, shoemakers, tailors, locksmiths, and clockmakers. At Cologne, a certain number of prisoners are without occupation, those, for instance, who are condemned to a short imprisonment, debtors, and those of the untried who are not likely to remain long. Trades of all sorts are carried on by the rest of the prisoners; amongst others, lithography.

The following table shows the numbers of employed and unemployed in the prison of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1828:—

Men employed in weaving, carding, &c., or as tailors, mechanics, &c.	763
Men employed in the kitchen, infirmary, and in the service of the establishment	55
Total employed	818

The men unemployed, were,

Prisoners placed *au secret*	43
Ditto of weak body or mind	87
Ditto sick	162

Prisoners of a certain rank, and debtors	14
Ditto condemned to pay a fine, or confined for a short period	400
Ditto confined temporarily in this establishment, in transit	109
Total unemployed	815
The number of women employed in knitting, weaving, &c., was	197
Ditto in the service of the establishment	9
Total employed	206
The women placed *au secret*	23
Ditto in ill health	28
Ditto debtors, or confined for a short period	87
Ditto temporarily imprisoned, in transit	60
Total unemployed	198

Since 1826, a treadmill has been used in the house of correction at Hamburg. The diameter of the wheel is seven feet and a half; it has twenty-one steps; ten prisoners are employed at it eight hours a day; they are divided into two sections of five each, and relieve each other every five minutes; during this short space of time they have to mount four hundred and twenty steps.

At Güstrow, several trades are exercised, and the object of employment is, not only to keep the prisoners occupied during their stay in the prison, but to teach them a useful vocation for the future.

At Rudolstadt, in the duchy of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, the prisoners are employed in turning a wheel, the noise of which constrains them to silence; it sets in motion a machine for cloth-making.

At Naugard, the object of the management has been, not to turn the prison into a manufactory, but to employ the prisoners in any occupation which they had previously been taught. At Kaiserslautern, the treadmill and several occupations have been introduced.

Before we conclude this subject, we shall say a few words on the savings of prisoners, and on the produce of their labour in general.

In Austria, the daily task allotted to each prisoner is such, that the very industrious have a little time to work for themselves. The half of what the prisoner earns for himself is set apart to be given him at his liberation; the other half he can spend in buying bread, beer, or broth. In order to appreciate this privilege, we must remember that the Austrian prisoner has, for three days of the week, only a pound of bread for all provision.

At Naugard, the prisoner has first to pay for his support by his labour, before he receives anything extra. What he saves, is placed in the Savings'-bank at Stettin, and should he die in confinement, it goes to his heirs. On his quitting the prison, he not only receives his extra earnings, but he is duly recommended where he is likely to obtain employment. In respect to their gains, all the prisoners are put as much as possible on the same footing; and half is at their disposal for the purchase of provisions, a little brandy, and, on Sundays, of tobacco for chewing.

At Dresden, the sum accruing from surplus labour is never placed at the prisoner's disposal until his liberation.

At Hamburg, the system of surplus labour has not been adopted; but a part of what the prisoners earn reverts to them.

The other German prisons resemble more or less the above, in the arrangements they have introduced respecting the employment of prisoners.

At Coburg, half the gain is given weekly to the prisoners to spend; and the other half is retained until their discharge.

At Mannheim, *elementary instruction* of a mutual kind has been introduced, by which reading, writing, and arithmetic are tanght; it takes place for an hour every day. On Sundays, one of the convicts reads portions of the Bible to the others.

At Freiburg, the Sundays and holidays are devoted to the instruction of such prisoners as desire it, in reading, writing, and accounts. Of 6941 prisoners who were confined at Schweidnitz, from 1801 to 1826, 1500 learned to read, 1250 to write, and 970 to cast accounts. This establishment has a regular school master.

At Naugard, a prisoner is charged provisionally with the elementary instruction of his companions; but only the better

prisoners are taught to write, from a fear that they may abuse the acquisition.

The following table shows the state of elementary instruction in those prisons to which the influence of the Rheno-Westphalian Prison Society had extended, two years after its formation.

	Total No. of Prisoners.	Not able to read.	Not able to write.	Not able to cast accounts.
House of Correction at Düsseldorf	220	90	150	150
House of Arrest at Cleves	152	80	120	120
Criminal Prison at Wesel	140	60	85	85
Ditto at Cologne	290	130	200	200
House of Arrest at Cologne	280	130	—	—
House of Correction at Brauweiler	516	435	—	—

In the *Stadt-Voigtei* prison at Berlin, no measures have been taken to promote elementary instruction: the women only receive it, owing to the exertions of a committee of ladies. At Spandau, a school was established in 1824, where the prisoners are taught reading, writing and accounts; the schoolmaster has a salary of fifty dollars. At Brandenburg thirty or forty are chosen out of three or four hundred prisoners to receive elementary instruction thrice a week. At Prenzlau and at Potsdam, the young prisoners alone are instructed and are sent to school in the respective towns.

At Luckau, Königsberg, Rawicz, Brieg, Munster, Werden, Aix-la-Chapelle, and Malmedy, there is religious, but no elementary instruction. At Lichtenburg, the clergyman is the schoolmaster, and at Treves, on Sundays and holidays, the prisoners are instructed in reading, writing, arithmetic and drawing; whilst the young Protestants go regularly to a school in the town.

In the house of correction at Brauweiler there are a schoolmaster and a schoolmistress; the former has two hundred and sixty-two dollars, the latter, two hundred dollars, salary. The prisoners are taught spelling, reading, writing, the history of their country, arithmetic, drawing and singing, and natural history. In 1826, the school contained one hundred and sixty-two children of from five to sixteen, and twenty-one persons above that age. The boys learn the military exercise, during the hours of recreation, and form a well organised company, which has a commander,

eight sub-officers, eight corporals, four drummers, and six trumpeters; this company materially contributes to the maintenance of order. There is an annual-examination of the school.

In the Austrian prisons, Sunday-schools only have been established, where reading, writing and arithmetic are taught to those who desire it.

Our next topic is the *Religious instruction* which is imparted to prisoners in Germany. In Austria, the chaplains of the gaols have ordinary and extraordinary duties; the former consist of the ceremonies of worship, of regular religious instruction, and of the administration of confession and of the sacrament every three months to those who request it; the latter consist of admonitory visits to the prisoner on his admission and at his departure. The chaplain has also to visit the sick, and sometimes the work-rooms. The Protestant prisoners are under the spiritual care of pastors of their own faith, who have interviews with them at stated times. The care which the Austrian government takes to define in what cases the prisoners may confer privately with the chaplain, shows evidently that it considers such communications as exceptions to its system, which is rather passive than active.

A different principle prevails in the Prussian prison of Naugard. Here the most scrupulous measures are taken in order that the chaplain and director may become thoroughly acquainted with the character of each prisoner, the circumstances of his crime, his previous life, his family relations, and the state of his moral nature. The chaplain is bound to visit the prisoners frequently, to gain the confidence of each, to become their friend and father, to concert measures with the director for improving the situation of those who deserve it, and in cases of complete and sincere regeneration to recommend them to the royal clemency.

Religious instruction is still very limited in the prisons of Rhenish Prussia; however, for some years past, they have been recovering from the defective state in this respect, in which they were left by the French government. Almost all the prisons of Old Prussia have their chaplains, and in all there are sermons on Sundays and holidays. Prayer-books, bibles, and testaments are distributed amongst the prisoners, and, in some places, the

work entitled, *Stunden der Andacht* (Hours of Devotion). In the Hamburg prison, religious service is performed on Sundays and holidays, and *all* the prisoners take the sacrament twice a year. At Mannheim and at Freiburg, mass is celebrated on Sunday morning, and religious instruction is given in the afternoon; on Tuesdays and Fridays, the same forms are repeated at Mannheim.

The principal *disciplinary punishment* in Germany is the bastinado, which is everywhere resorted to, except in the city of Hamburg, and in the Rhenish provinces, where the *Code Napoleon* is still in force. Solitary confinement has also been adopted as a punishment in several German prisons.

In the prison at Munich, the disciplinary punishments are, the bastinado for the men, and solitary imprisonment for the women; in Austria, they are reprehension, either private, or before all the prisoners, exclusion from recreation, bread-and-water diet, the bastinado for the men, and whipping for the women. At Dresden, Plessenburg, and Mannheim, they resemble, more or less, the foregoing, as also at Naugard. At Luckau, in addition to the above punishments, the men are sometimes put in irons. At Kaiserslautern, in Rhenish Bavaria, the disciplinary punishments are, privation of soup, or diminution of the daily allowance of bread, solitary imprisonment and a certain quantity of labour for a period not exceeding eight days; solitary imprisonment and labour without soup, for a period not exceeding fifteen days; and, finally, solitary confinement without light or occupation and with the hands and feet fettered for the same period. At Brauweiler, the only disciplinary punishment is solitary confinement, which can be inflicted for three days up to three months.

A praiseworthy *care* is taken by the respective governments of the prisoners *after their liberation*. At Hamburg it not unfrequently happens, that the prisoner receives on his liberation a sum of from two hundred to three hundred marks, as the produce of his labour. When the conduct of the prisoner has been good, exertions are made to establish *him* honestly. In the duchy of Nassau, if the prisoner's gains do not amount to a certain sum, the deficiency is supplied by the government. In all

cases he receives a new dress gratis, and care is taken to replace him well in the world, and to prevent him from returning to his former career. In Rhine-Prussia, as soon as the prisoner is liberated, he is protected and assisted by the Rheno-Westphalian society. In Austria it is the authorities of the police who are bound to superintend him, and to aid in his restoration to society.

On the proportion between the *recommittals* and the sum total of admissions; we have selected the following facts. Of 1700 culprits confined at Plessenburg, during five years, one hundred and forty-eight had already been once imprisoned, and twenty-one twice. At Brauweiler, out of three hundred and eight prisoners, ninety-seven were twice imprisoned, eight thrice, and two five times. The prisoners who have been recommitted form a second class, and their diet is not so good as is that of the first. Of 2071 prisoners admitted during the year 1828 into the prison of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1215 men and 275 women were committed for the first time, two hundred and thirty-six men and ninety-two women for the second, one hundred and forty-seven men and sixty-eight women for the third, twenty-nine men and two women for the fourth, five men and one woman for the fifth, and one man for the seventh time. Of seventy juvenile prisoners confined at Frankfort on the Oder in 1826, forty-eight boys and eleven girls may be regarded as improved, inasmuch as till 1830 at least, they had been convicted of no fresh offence; and nine boys and two girls were recommitted.

Here, then, we terminate the abstract which we have made from the minute and instructive researches of M. Lagarmitte. To render the statement more complete, it should be added that Dr. Julius, of Berlin, (well known for his devotion to the subject, and for his systematic lectures upon it,) has been lately sent to America by the king of Prussia, in order to report upon the state of the Penitentiaries of the United States. Dr. Julius promises the results of his observations in detail, and, for the present, has issued a pamphlet in which he declares himself, in general terms, favourable to the system of separate confinement pursued in some of those establishments. The two French commissioners, De Beaumont and De Toqueville, have also reported favourably on

it, but they doubt the possibility of introducing it into France*. M. Lucas, the inspector general of the French prisons, has declared himself strongly opposed to it. Nor has the mind of the public been as yet prepared to admit it with cordiality, by repeated proofs of its efficacy. A large part of our knowledge of this subject is derived from the United States, which contain, according to Dr. Julius of Berlin (the latest personal inquirer), eight penitentiaries conducted upon this system. But the United States do not possess the means of transportation; and the majority of the inmates of these penitentiaries corresponds with that class of our own offenders which is sentenced to exile; seclusion for a long period is there deemed essential to reformation, but with us the term of confinement is usually short in comparison. In those prisons which are not adapted for the Separate plan, the Silent system will always be advantageous;—the separate system, indeed, includes the silent one, but adds something still more severe than silence, namely, seclusion†.

The branch of my inquiries which has afforded me the most unmixed satisfaction, is that which relates to the proportion of deaths which occurs in the principal gaols of England. The rate of mortality is, in most of these abodes, so remarkably low, that I can confidently affirm, that in very few situations of life is an adult less likely to die than in a well-conducted English

* "The expense of Penitentiaries built upon the Philadelphia plan is so considerable, that it would seem to us imprudent to propose the adoption of this plan for our country. Too heavy a burden would be thrown on society, for which the most happy results of the system could hardly offer an equivalent. Yet the Auburn system, whose merit in theory is not less incontestible, is, as we have shown above, much cheaper in its execution; it is, therefore, this system which we should wish to see applied to our prisons, if the question were only to choose between the two."—(*Beaum. et Toq.*, Amer. Transl., p. 90.) MM. Demetz and Blouet, recently commissioned by the French government on a fresh investigation, report, that the cost of each cell on the Philadelphia plan will be 3,561 francs for Paris, and 2,136 for the Provinces.

† As to the admitting prisoners to the privilege of conversing with their friends, with the chaplain and surgeon and governor,—in this respect the Silent and Separate plans are similar, and both admit of it. In short, separate confinement, means seclusion and silence, except when friends or prison officers enter; while the silent plan does not separate from the sight of fellow prisoners, nor from labouring in gangs or groups, and admits the same facility of conversing with friends, and with the officers of the prison.

prison. A most remarkable difference is presented in this respect by the prisons of America, France, Germany, and Belgium. It would be irrelevant to pursue the subject any further in this place.

It would be most advantageous if benevolent persons would turn their attention to the helpless condition of the individual who quits a prison, as well as to the discipline of its inmates. Permanent reformation is hopeless, unless some means of gaining a future livelihood are provided for the despised and rejected being, against whom every door is closed, except that of the beer-shop, and who often leaves his last home with scarcely a shilling in his pocket. Some benevolent societies have been formed in our own and other countries in order to afford an industrious asylum, or the means of labour, to those who have been discharged from prison. Others have been created for the reformation of juvenile offenders, and for the education of the children of criminals. But this moral wilderness has only been reclaimed in a few scanty spots: it is but too vast, and the cultivators as yet are few. And it is difficult to conceive a nobler, a more Christian employment of money, of time, and of energy, than to supply the liberated prisoner with an opportunity of earning an honest livelihood.

Those who are desirous of more minute information respecting the prisons of Germany will do well to consult, in addition to the works of Julius; *Friedlander*, "Bibliographie Méthodique des Ouvrages publiées en Allemagne sur les Pauvres, précédée d'un Coup d'Œil Historique sur les Pauvres, les Prisons, les Hôpitaux," (Paris, 1822); *Ristelhueber*, "Wegweiser der Literatur der Waisenpflege, und der Gefängnisskunde," (Cöln, 1831); *Inglis's* "Tyrol," for an account of the prisons at Munich and Innspruck; the Reports of the London Society for the Improvement of Prison Discipline; and the "Journal des Prisons," edited at Paris by B. Appert. For an account of the old aspect of these institutions, reference may be made to the noble Howard's "State of Prisons."

CHAPTER XIV.

THE MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS OF GERMANY.

Aix-la-Chapelle. Alexanderbad. Alexisbad. Altwasser. Baden near Vienna. Baden-Baden. Berka. Bocklet. Brückenau. Cannstadt. Carlsbad. Carlsbrunn. Cudowa. Cuxhaven. Dinkhold. Dobbelbad. Doberan. Draitsch. Eger. Eilsen. Ems. Fachingen. Franzenbrunn. Freyenwalde. Gastein. Griesbach. Gross-Wardein. Hercules-Baths. Hirschberg. Kissingen. Landeck. Lauchstadt. Liebenstein. Mannersdorf. Marienbad. Meinberg. Nenndorf. Nieder Selters. Nierenstein. Nordheim. Ofen. Puttbus. Pyrmont. Rehburg. Reinerg. Rügenwalde. Salzbrunn. Schandau. Schlangenbad. Schwalbach. Seidschutz. Sedlitz. Selters. Swinemunde. Teinach. Toeplitz. Travemunde. Warmbrunn. Wisbaden. Wildbad.

The baths, spas, or mineral waters of Germany, constitute so large a portion of amusement, health, and profit to the inhabitants, are so attractive to strangers, and enter so widely into its natural history and social geography, that it requires no apology to introduce them at some length to the reader. Those who desire more copious illustrations will probably have recourse to the volumes lately published by Dr. Granville, and to the German works of Osann, Bley, Richter, and Mosch: the literature of Germany is particularly rich in all that relates to the history of baths and mineral waters; they appear, indeed, to have always been a matter of fonder interest to the Germans than to other Europeans. We have preferred the alphabetical arrangement, as most convenient for reference. Their celebrity is constantly fluctuating: new springs rise occasionally into a notoriety, not always dependant on their positive efficacy, but humble slaves to the caprices of speculating proprietors, and of distinguished visitors.

Aix-la-Chapelle. This town, one of the most noted of the German watering-places, boasts of an illustrious antiquity. Its

situation, on the boundaries of three monarchies, has greatly contributed to its celebrity. It is now annually frequented by between four and five thousand persons. Its hot sulphureous waters are both used for bathing and are taken internally, and maintain their early celebrity as a curative agent in gout, abdominal diseases, cutaneous affections, and obstructions.

Two products of these springs deserve a particular mention, viz., *der Badestein* (bathstone) deposited in the tubes through which the waters are conducted, and the sulphur precipitated by the vapour of the Kaiser Spring. This latter is esteemed purer than any other sulphur, and is, therefore, always preferred for medicinal purposes. There are several chalybeate springs, one of which has only lately been discovered.

Since 1831, thermal salt has been prepared from the springs of Aix-la-Chapelle, and this, together with the thermal sulphur, precipitated by the Kaiser Spring, will render it possible to imitate the waters at a distance, as far as nature can be imitated.

There are hotels in immediate connexion with most of the baths. Private lodgings cost from one to four dollars weekly. In the hotels, for the same period, from four to ten Prussian dollars are paid; the price of dinner at the table d'hôte, is from one-third to two-thirds of a Prussian dollar.

The hire of coaches is dear; for instance, from four to six dollars are paid for a single afternoon's ride.

Amongst the numerous places of amusement and public resort are the gambling Casino, the concert and ball-rooms, tea-gardens, Tivoli, and some neighbouring villages, romantically situated.

The latest and best works on Aix-la-Chapelle and its mineral springs, are *Beschreibung von Aachen von Quix*, 4to. Ausgabe, 1829; and *Die Heilquellen von Aachen, von J. P. Monheim*, Aachen and Leipsic, 1829.

ANALYSIS OF THE KAISER SPRING.

1. Solid matter in sixteen ounces.

Sulphate of Soda	$1\frac{1}{2}$ grains.
Muriate of ditto	$22\frac{3}{10}$ do.
Carbonate of ditto	$4\frac{3}{10}$ do.
Carbonate of Lime	$\frac{1}{10}$ do.
Carbonate of Magnesia	$\frac{1}{4}$ do.

2. Gaseous matter in sixteen ounces.

Carbonic Acid Gas	8¾ cubic inches.
Sulphuretted Hydrogen	13½ do.

Alexanderbad, in Bavaria, lies half a league from the town of Wunsiedel, and close to the village of Sichersreuth. The acidulated spring here was discovered in 1734, and the building which encloses it, erected in 1741. The last margraves of Brandenburg-Baireuth expended large sums of money on this watering-place, in erecting several buildings which form a half-circle. Numerous and very diversified walks in the charming neighbourhood render a stay here extremely agreeable. Curious masses of rock claim especially the attention of the visitor. The spring is somewhat similar to the Selter-water. A very agreeable beverage is made by mixing it with wine, sugar, and currant-juice. It is an excellent remedy in cases of relaxation, mucous cough, diarrhœa, female complaints, eruptions and sores. On account of its tonic quality, it is often taken after a course of the Carlsbad waters. The place is not at present very much frequented, although living there is cheap and very agreeable.

The next post-station is Wunsiedel. The best account of this mineral spring is by Vogel, *Die Mineralquellen des Königreichs Baiern.* Alexanderbad is seventy-one leagues from Munich.

ANALYSIS OF THE SPRING, BY VOGEL.

Sulphate of Soda	0·10 grains in 16 oz.	
Carbonate of ditto	0·30	do.
Muriate of ditto	0·20	do.
Carbonate of Magnesia	0·25	do.
Carbonate of Lime	1·12	do.
Carbonate of Iron	0·28	do.
Silica	0·25	do.
Solid matter	2·50	do.

Carbonic Acid Gas, 28·2 cubic inches in 16 oz.

Alexisbad. This celebrated watering-place is situated in the Seekethal, in the Lower Harz, and in the duchy of Anhalt-Bernburg. The spring here was first discovered by the miners, who, at an early period, were familiar with this romantic region. But it was not till the year 1766 that it was chemically examined, and it was first visited by invalids in the succeeding year. It

never, however, became much known, till in 1800, the researches of Von Gräfe, who was then surgeon to the duke of Anhalt, established its reputation.

In the years 1809 and 1810, the first buildings were erected, and in 1812, the number of visitors was three hundred and fifty-six. Since that time, two chalybeate springs have been discovered in the immediate neighbourhood.

The principal buildings at Alexisbad are, the Saloon, with adjoining gaming-rooms, the Lodging-house, containing sixty apartments, the Traiteur-house, with thirty rooms for the use of travellers, the New Baths, and the Ducal Pavilion, situated on the banks of a mountain-stream, surrounded by beautiful and romantic walks. The expense here is moderate, particularly that of lodging and bathing.

The neighbouring little town of Harzgerode furnishes the necessaries of life, and receives visitors when Alexisbad is full.

The nearest post-station is Ballenstädt. The best account of the mineral spring is by Gräfe.

ANALYSIS BY GRÄFE.

Sulphate of Soda	$1\cdot\frac{4}{5}$	grains in	16 oz.
Sulphate of Magnesia	$0\cdot\frac{13}{18}$	.....	do.
Sulphate of Lime	$0\cdot\frac{5}{9}$	.....	do.
Resinous extractive matter	$0\cdot\frac{1}{8}$	.....	do.
Muriate of Magnesia	$0\cdot\frac{2}{5}$	.....	do.
Muriate of Lime	$0\cdot\frac{3}{5}$	.....	do.
Sulphate of Iron	$1\cdot\frac{4}{9}$	.....	do.
Muriate of ditto	$1\cdot\frac{5}{18}$	.....	do.
Carbonate of ditto	$0\cdot\frac{1}{3}$	.....	do.
Solid matter	$6\cdot\frac{5}{18}$	.....	do.

Altwasser is a village in the circle of Waldenburg, in the Prussian province of Silesia. It has been a watering-place since the middle of the last century, and was formerly much frequented by the Polish nobility.

The waters are prescribed in abdominal affections, gout, melancholy, chlorosis, hysteria, and nervous weakness.

There are five fountains. The principal ingredients of the waters are the carbonates of soda, lime and magnesia, and carbonic acid gas, in the proportion of twenty-four cubic inches

in sixteen ounces. Here, as in all the larger Silesian watering-places, the guests are divided into three classes with respect to the charge for bathing; the first pays seven groschen, the second and the third three, for a bath.

The place is pleasantly situated in a narrow valley, and contains a royal palace. The walks in the neighbourhood are delightful. A musical corps of the miners plays every day on the promenade.

Many invalids drink the waters of the neighbouring Salzbrunn, and only bathe at Altwasser. This place is becoming more frequented than formerly. The nearest post-station is Friedland.

Baden near Vienna. This watering-place is situated in a delightful neighbourhood, and boasts of a beautiful park, a theatre, a casino, several palaces, and numerous seats of Austrian nobles. The water is strongly impregnated with salts and sulphur, and with it is made an artificial slime for medicinal application. The springs are efficacious in incipient mucous phthisis, in gout, cutaneous diseases, paralysis, contractions, scrofula, and various sores. They are used both for bathing and drinking. Till within the last few years, Baden has been the most frequented of German watering-places; it combines all the advantages of an agreeable way of life, with very moderate prices. Lodging is particularly cheap. The neighbourhood is extremely attractive. In 1831, the monthly rent of a room was from twelve to twenty-five florins. Vienna is two German miles from Baden.

Analysis of the Spring, by Volta.

Sulphate of Soda	1 $\frac{3}{7}$	grains in 16 oz.
Muriate of Soda	3 $\frac{1}{3}$	..... do.
Sulphate of Lime	3	..... do.
Carbonate of Lime	3 $\frac{3}{43}$	..... do.
Sulphate of Magnesia	1 $\frac{2}{3}$	..... do.
Carbonate of do.	2 $\frac{5}{21}$	..... do.
Muriate of Alumina	1	..... do.
Carbonic Acid Gas	1 $\frac{15}{21}$	cubic inches in 16 oz.
Sulphuretted Hydrogen	4 $\frac{5}{7}$	..... do.

Baden-Baden is situated on the Os or Oesbach, in the grand duchy of Baden. Its celebrated warm springs were known at a very remote period. The town contains about four hundred houses and three thousand inhabitants. It was founded by the

emperor Adrian, and embellished by Aurelius Antoninus. Baden and its neighbourhood are beautified by numerous private seats, by lovely walks, vineries, meadows and English gardens. There are several ancient buildings, which have been converted to modern purposes. There are sixteen principal springs. In August, 1832, the number of visitors at Baden was eight thousand. The public buildings are remarkably numerous and splendid. The waters are prescribed for gout, paralysis, cutaneous diseases, ulcers, and abdominal affections. The best account of this noted place is contained in Schrader's *Geschichte Badens*. The best German society is not to be sought here; but there is no lack of gambling and dissipation.

ANALYSIS OF THE PRINCIPAL SPRING, BY SALZER.

Muriate of Soda	17 $\frac{8}{10}$	grains in 16 oz.
Sulphate of Lime	2 $\frac{18}{25}$	do.
Muriate of do.	1 $\frac{57}{100}$	do.
Carbonate of do.	1 $\frac{45}{100}$	do.
Muriate of Magnesia	$\frac{24}{25}$	do.
Oxide of Iron	$\frac{3}{25}$	do.

Berka is situated on the river Ilm, in the grand duchy of Saxe-Weimar, about three leagues from the capital. A sulphureous spring was discovered here in 1813, and a chalybeate one in the succeeding year. They rise in a meadow which has since been changed into a garden. In the buildings and arrangements, the convenience of the invalid, and the pleasure of the gayer visitors, are alike regarded. The nearest post-station is Weimar.

Bocklet is a village in the valley of the river Saale, about two leagues from Kissingen and fourteen from Würzburg, where there is an excellent chalybeate spring. The neighbourhood presents delightful valleys, skirted by well-wooded hills. The baths are enclosed in six noble buildings; and the whole is the property of the state. The beauty of the neighbourhood, and the excellent arrangements which have been made there, have rendered Bocklet a very fashionable resort. The houses are elegantly furnished, and the beds excellent. A dinner costs from twenty-four to forty kreutzers. The way of life here is stiller and more retired than in most watering-places. The waters are particularly efficacious in all nervous affections, chronic maladies, and diseases of females.

They ebb and flow about every twenty-eight hours. For further particulars, see Dr. Haus's *Bocklet und seine Heilquellen, Würzburg*, 1831.

ANALYSIS OF THE LUDWIGSQUELLE AND FRIEDREICHSQUELLE, BY VOGEL.

	Ludwigsq.		Friedreichsq.	
Muriate of Soda	27·50 grains	.....	5·50 grains in 16 oz.	
Sulphate of Soda	6·25 do.	.....	3·25	do.
Muriate of Potash	1·25 do.	.....	0·75	do.
Muriate of Magnesia	0·75 do.	.....	0·75	do.
Carbonate of Lime	7·25 do.	.....	6·25	do.
Carbonate of Magnesia	1·25 do.	.....	0·75	do.
Carbonate of Iron	0·65 do.	.....	0·25	do.
Silica	0·50 do.	.....	0·25	do.

Of Carbonic Acid Gas, 31 cubic inches are contained in 16 ounces of the *Ludwigsquelle*, and 26½ in the *Friedreichsquelle*.

Brückenau. This ancient Bavarian watering-place is situated in the Upper Mayn circle. It owes its present celebrity to the patronage of the king of Bavaria, and to the assertion of Hufeland that its waters, great quantities of which are exported, are equal to those of Schwalbach; they are said to be the purest chalybeate known. They are as clear as crystal, very brisk, and pleasantly acid. Their medicinal effect is decidedly tonic, and they are particularly efficacious in nervous disorders. The spring rises half a league from the town in a lovely valley. The public buildings are numerous, and very tastefully and conveniently constructed. Brückenau is a post-station.

Cannstadt is an old town in the kingdom of Wurtemberg, about two English miles from Stuttgard, and situated in the lovely valley of the Neckar. In this place there are no less than thirty-seven mineral springs. The effect which the water produces upon the animal system is, to invigorate the secreting organs; it is also a laxative and a reputed solvent. The bathing-houses are commodious. A dinner at the best *table d'hôte* costs forty-eight kreutzers. There are vineries in the neighbourhood, which presents numerous interesting objects to the antiquarian and lover of nature. The climate is mild and pleasant. Nevertheless, Cannstadt is not much frequented, except for a few days, by persons from Stuttgard. The principal ingredients of the

water are muriate of soda and carbonic acid gas, with both of which it is strongly impregnated.

Carlsbad is situated in the kingdom of Bohemia, on both sides of the river Tepel, at about forty degrees North latitude, and at one hundred and eighty-two fathoms above the level of the sea. This celebrated watering-place derives its origin and name from the emperor Charles the Fourth, who recovered here from the wounds he had received at the battle of Cressy.

In 1581, the first bathing-house for the poor was erected here by the count of Schlick. Altogether, there are at least a dozen springs. Numerous relics are faithfully preserved at Carlsbad of the noble and illustrious guests who have visited it from time to time. Several parts of the town are named after different distinguished visitors. In 1832, Carlsbad contained four hundred and fifteen houses, and three thousand two hundred inhabitants. In the season, it presents a scene of remarkable variety and animation. Since 1831, arrangements have been made in order that the baths may be used in winter as well as in summer. A bath costs, according to the style of building and furniture, from twelve to twenty-four kreutzers. The year 1833 was one of the most brilliant that Carlsbad has ever seen; 6,500 visitors were present, amongst whom were several crowned heads, and renowned generals. A peculiar custom here is, that no one is allowed to carry arms; even officers are not permitted to wear their side-arms.

A good dinner at a *table d'hôte* costs thirty-six kreutzers. There are numbers of ruins, romantic villages, valleys, &c., in the neighbourhood, to which, during the season, excursions are constantly made. Since the discovery of the Carlsbad springs, several hundred persons have written respecting them. A good modern author on the subject, is Porselmann, *Der Schlossbrunnen zu Carlsbad. Prag.* 1817. Dr. de Carro has written a guide-book, in the French language.

ANALYSIS OF THE SPRUDEL AT CARLSBAD, BY BERZELIUS.

Sulphate of Soda	10·86916	grains in 16 oz.
Muriate of ditto	7·97583	..... do.
Carbonate of ditto	9·69500	..... do.
Carbonate of Lime	10·05005	..... do.

Fluoride of Calcium	0·02458	grains in 16 oz.
Phosphate of Lime	0·00169	do.
Carbonate of Strontia	0·00737	do.
Carbonate of Magnesia	1·36965	do.
Phosphate of Alumina	0·00246	do.
Carbonate of Iron	0·02780	do.
Carbonate of Manganese	0·00645	do.
Silica	0·57725	do.
Solid matter	49·60719	do.

Carlsbrunn is situated in Austrian Silesia, about three leagues from Freudenthal, which is the nearest post-station. It lies in the narrow, wild, and well-wooded valley of the Oppa. It contains chalybeate and acidulous springs. The buildings consist of a bathing-house, some lodging-houses, a public room, and an hotel. This is one of those retired watering-places which are only visited by invalids. There are some wild and extensive views in the neighbourhood.

Cudowa is a village in the circle of Glatz, in Prussian Silesia, very near the Bohemian boundaries. It contains several extensive bathing-houses, and other buildings. The springs are alkaline-chalybeate, and are amongst the strongest in Germany. In 1829, 185 families, consisting of 348 persons, visited Cudowa, but the number has since diminished. The nearest post-station is Reinerz.

Cuxhaven, a watering-place, is situated at the mouth of the Elbe, on the North Sea. It has been a sea-bathing place since 1816. It boasts of a beautiful new bathing-house, near the haven, which contains a great number of apartments, halls, and galleries. On the beach are conveyances for sea-bathing. In the evening, there are always amusements here, such as balls, and concerts. The nearest post-station is Ritzebuttel.

Dinkhold, in Nassau, situated not far from where the Lahn falls into the Rhine, contains an alkaline-chalybeate spring. It is rich in iron, bitter, but not unpleasant, and is a very good tonic and stomachic. The nearest post-station is Ems.

Dobbelbad is a bathing-place in Styria, about half a league from Gratz. It is the property of the States-general. The waters are

cold, sharp, and bitter, and contain calcareous and chalybeate salts. Most of the visitors here are females. The nearest post-station is Gratz.

Doberan is a market-town of the grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, about half a mile from which, on the shore of the Baltic, is the oldest and most popular sea-bathing place in Germany. It contains a ducal palace, with beautiful gardens, There is also a handsome theatre, and a large public room in the form of a pavilion. This place was a favourite residence of the late lamented grand duke. There are several lakes in the neighbourhood. In the month of August, swan-hunting on the Covent-lake is a favourite amusement. The nearest post-station is Rostock.

Draitsch, or *Godesberg*, is situated near the Rhine, about a league from Bonn. About a hundred yards from this lovely village there is a mineral spring. It has been a watering-place since 1789, but was much more frequented before the French war than at present. Dr. Harless, of Bonn, has examined the waters, and pronounced them to be chalybeate, and mildly stimulant. The part of the Rhine valley in which this place is situated, is extremely beautiful; on the one side it is bounded by the Seven Mountains, the foremost of which is the *Drachenfels*, and on the other by woody hills. The nearest post-station is Bonn.

Eger, or *Franzenbrunn*, is a watering-place in the Ellbogner circle of the kingdom of Bohemia. The springs are half a mile from the town. The buildings round them are remarkable for their elegance and convenience. Prices here are moderate; thirty-six kreutzers are paid for an excellent dinner at a *table d'hôte*. There are four springs. From 150,000 to 200,000 bottles of the water are exported annually. Their medicinal effects are universally celebrated in affections of the lungs, kidneys, and liver. The way of life at Eger is tranquil and retired. It is one of the few places where the guests have free license to hunt. The season commences rather later than in most other places, and lasts till the middle of September. The number of visitors is between nine hundred and a thousand annually. The climate is rather cold. The town of Eger is a post-station,

ANALYSIS OF THE PRINCIPAL SPRING, BY TROMSDORF.

Muriate of Soda	8·9333 grains in 16 oz.	
Sulphate of ditto	25·4166	do.
Bicarbonate of ditto	8·4556	do.
Carbonate of Lime	1·6000	do.
Ditto of Magnesia	0·5333	do.
Ditto of Lithia	0·0026	do.
Ditto of Strontia	0·0013	do.
Ditto of Iron	0·0680	do.
Ditto of Manganese	0·0040	do.
Phosphate of Lime	0·0213	do.
Phosphate of Magnesia	0·0106	do.
Silica	0·3666	do.
Solid matter	45·4142 in 16 oz.	

Carbonic Acid Gas, 21·106 cubic inches in 16 oz.

Eilsen is situated in the principality of Lippe-Schaumburg, a league from the capital, Bückeburg, and twelve leagues from the city of Hanover. It is a poor village, but rich in mineral springs, of which seven are saline and sulphureous, and four chalybeate. The bathing-house, which is an excellent building, is the property of the prince. In 1833, the season commenced June 1, and ended September 2. The large lodging-house contains 140 rooms. In the season, balls and concerts are the chief amusements; gambling is forbidden to the natives. The surrounding country is agreeable. Bückeburg is the nearest post-station.

Ems, in the duchy of Nassau, lies in the deep and narrow valley of the Lahn. The baths here were known to the Romans, and were celebrated throughout the middle ages. The public buildings are elegant, extensive, and very commodious. The price of a room, in 1832, in the two large bathing-houses, was from twenty-four kreutzers to two florins, daily. A good dinner costs about a florin; wine is at forty-eight kreutzers a bottle. This place is extremely rich in mineral springs, which have been found particularly efficacious in diseases of the eyes, also in glandular and cutaneous disorders. The fashionable period for Ems, was between the years 1815 and 1820. On this

watering-place, read Hülshoff, *Ems und seine Quellen. Munster*, 1831.

ANALYSIS OF THE KRAENCHEN SPRING, BY STUVE.

Sulphate of Potash	0·5924	grains in 16 oz.
Sulphate of Soda	0·1213	do.
Muriate of ditto	7·7974	do.
Carbonate of ditto	0·7118	do.
Carbonate of Lithia	0·0167	do.
Silica	0·4139	do.
Phosphate of Alumina	0·0018	do.
Fluate of Lime	0·0019	do.
Carbonate of ditto	0·1407	do.
Ditto of Magnesia	0·7887	do.
Ditto of Strontia	0·0107	do.
Ditto of Barytes	0·0020	do.
Ditto of Iron	0·0164	do.
Ditto of Manganese	0·0037	do.
Solid matter	19·6194	do.

Fachingen is in the duchy of Nassau, two miles north of Wisbaden, on the Lahn. The mineral waters of this place are universally celebrated, and sent even to America. The village lies between high mountains; the springs rise in a meadow, and are three in number. The taste of the principal one is piquant, acidulated, and somewhat bitter, and contains a good deal of carbonic acid gas, and iron. It is efficacious in crudities, obstructions, and weakness of digestion, also in gouty and nervous affections. The place is not frequented by invalids, but 300,000 bottles of the water have been exported annually. The nearest post-station is Limburg.

Franzenbrunn. See *Eger*.

Fréyenwalde is a town not far from the Oder, in the Prussian province of Brandenburg. About half a league distant from it, in a meadow-valley surrounded by wooded hills, is a mineral spring and bathing-house. Round these are other buildings, one of which is a small theatre. This place was formerly much patronized by the Prussian royal family. Here Frederic William I. used to send his giant-grenadiers. The waters are not particularly efficacious, but have been found useful in gout and rheumatism;

they are chalybeate; and are said to taste like ink, and smell like gunpowder. The neighbourhood is extremely agreeable. The town is a post-station.

Gastein. This Austrian watering-place, situated in the Salzzach circle, was known to the Romans, and strongly recommended by Paracelsus. It lies at the foot of mountains which are a continuation of the Norian Alps. There are here four principal springs, and a bathing-house for horses. The place is visited by about one thousand guests annually, chiefly of the higher classes, and foreigners.

The waters are clear, are without either smell or taste, and contain no gas; and in 16 oz., only 2½ grains of solid matter, which is chiefly mineral alkali. The warmest of the springs elevates the thermometer to 35° Réaumur, and possesses the property of affecting the magnetic needle, which, however, the water loses as it cools. The springs are very promotive of vegetable fertility. They are prescribed in nervous relaxation, hypochondriasis, and scrofula. Gastein is sixteen miles from Salzburg. The latest author on this place is Strietz, *Les Bains de Gastein, et leur effet admirable dans les Maladies les plus désesperées.* Gastein is a post-station.

Godesberg. See *Draitsch.*

Griesbach is a small village near Freudenstadt, in the duchy of Baden. The spring for which it is celebrated is a saline-chalybeate, which has been found beneficial in incipient diseases of the lungs, hemorrhoids, gout, and jaundice. The neighbourhood consists of meadows, intersected by trout-streams, and bounded by hills. There are also some wide and woody prospects. Some years ago, it was visited by the grand duke. The nearest post-station is Freudenstadt.

Gross-Wardein, a watering-place in Hungary, is an important town in the Bihar district. The warm springs rise in the neighbouring mountains, and flow towards the town. They contain iron, selenium, and sulphate of magnesia, and enjoy great reputation in the cure of stone, paralysis, and diseases of the skin.

The banks of the streams in which these waters flow, are often covered with tents pitched by visitors from the neighbourhood.

No good analysis has yet been made of these springs. The town is a post-station.

Hercules-Baths, or *Mehadia*. These Hungarian springs rise in Banat, and in the district of the Wallachian-Illyrian regiment. They are all warm; some 42° (R.) They were esteemed by the Romans, and are now visited annually by 1,400 persons from Hungary, Croatia, Sclavonia, Transylvania, &c. By the Romans they were consecrated to Hercules. In the dark and barbarous ages, amidst frequent wars and migrations, and under the dominion of the crescent, they were neglected and forgotten. Though the springs are sometimes called Mehadia, they rise nearly a mile from that town, in the long and romantic valley of the Czerna.

There are a great number of baths in splendid public buildings, arranged with every imaginable attention to comfort and convenience. Ball, concert and billiard-rooms, and all the other buildings common to watering-places, are here in abundance. The waters are very rich in hydrogen, and are useful in relaxation, cutaneous disorders, paralysis, and the sequelæ of apoplexy. The credit which they enjoy in the neighbourhood is unbounded. See Dr. Schwarzott, *Die Herkulesbäder bei Mehadia. Wien*, 1831.

Hirschberg, or *Warmbrunn*, is a small but beautiful market-town, lying on both banks of the Zacken in Prussian Silesia, in the district of Liegnitz. The warm sulphureous springs here were discovered in 1176, and since that time their reputation has always been very extensive. They are now surrounded by four hundred noble buildings, and were visited in 1831, by 2,958 persons, of whom 2,617 were invalids. There are six principal bathing-houses; also, an hospital for the poor, of whom four hundred annually receive, gratuitously, the benefit of these waters.

The temperature of these springs is from 24° to 30° (R.) They are used with good effect in rheumatism, gout, glandular, cutaneous, abdominal affections, and inflammation of the eyes.

In respect to the situation and surrounding country, few watering-places can compete with it. Pumps and vapour-baths are here, comparatively, very cheap, and the necessaries of life

not expensive. The latest description of this watering-place is by Bergemann, *Warmbrunn und seine Heilquellen. Hirschberg*, 1831. Hirschberg is a post-station.

ANALYSIS OF THE PROBSTEI-BAD, BY TSCHÖRTNER.

Carbonate of Soda	5·014	grains in	16 oz.
Sulphate of ditto	2·666	.....	do.
Sulphate of Lime	0·290	.....	do.
Muriate of Soda	0·666	.....	do.
Carbonate of Lime	1·043	.....	do.
Silica	0·754	.....	do.
Resin	0·057	.....	do.
Solid matter	10·490	.....	do.

Sulphuretted Hydrogen Gas, 6·666 cubic inches in 16 oz.

Kissingen is a Bavarian town, in the Lower Mayn circle, the rising celebrity of which is to be attributed to the peculiar excellence of its mineral waters, and to the improvements in its establishments. The town lies in a valley of meadows, enclosed by vine-clad hills; past it flows the river Saale. The situation and whole neighbourhood of the place are extremely beautiful. The bathing-houses and other public buildings are in the most elegant style. The principal spring is called the Ragotzi; its waters are clear and bright when first drawn, but they shortly turn yellowish, and deposit a red sediment. To the taste, they are acidulated, salt and bitter. They are very efficacious in indigestion, gout, affections of the kidneys, congestion, and cutaneous diseases.

Another spring, the Pandur, which is very rich in carbonic acid gas, is at once a laxative and a remedy in diarrhœa. Provisions here are good, particularly the wines, and prices not high.

In 1833, there were 1,400 guests at Kissingen, amongst whom were members of several royal familes.

Landeck is a town in Prussian Silesia, which gives its name to some mineral springs about a quarter of a league from it. These were celebrated as early as the thirteenth century, but were nearly forgotten, when they were visited in 1766, by Frederic the Great.

The public buildings underwent great improvement at the beginning of this century. The number of guests here annually, some years ago, was from six hundred to eight hundred; at present it does not amount to more than five hundred. There are four principal baths. The hotels are not very good. One of the springs has a temperature of 84° (F.) Another, which contains a great deal of sulphuretted hydrogen, is given with good effect in gout, scrofula, and some cases of hemorrhage.

The surrounding country is rich in natural beauties; most of the neighbouring streams contain trout. The nearest post-station is Glatz.

Lauchstadt is situated in Prussian Saxony, in the circle of Merseburg. A saline chalybeate spring was discovered here in 1810. There are several excellent public buildings, among which is a theatre, formerly honoured by the superintendance of the poet Goethe.

In 1831, there were four hundred visitors at Lauchstadt. The springs here never freeze, and maintain an equable temperature of 48° (F.) This place is a mile from Merseburg, which is the nearest post-station.

Liebenstein is a village in the duchy of Saxe-Meiningen, two German miles and a half south of Eisenach, and four north of Meiningen. It lies on the south-western border of the Thuringian forest, in a romantic and fruitful country. Its springs have been celebrated since 1606.

The public buildings are excellent. Dinners cost from twenty-four kreutzers to a florin; from four to six florins are paid monthly for a room. There are several natural curiosities in the neighbourhood. The waters are strongly impregnated with alkalies, iron, and carbonic acid gas, and are of great service in the treatment of hypochondriasis, hysteria, and weakness of the stomach.

The nearest post-station is Wizelrode. The queen dowager of England resided here during her visit to Germany, in 1834.

Mannersdorf is situated at a short distance to the south-east of Vienna. Its alkaline springs are much warmer in winter than in summer, and contain ten grains of selenium, and twelve of sulphate of magnesia, in every two pounds. They are very

serviceable in all disorders arising from congestion, local or general. The next post-station is Wimpassing.

Marienbad is situated in Bohemia, at about 49° North latitude, and lies about three hundred and twenty-two fathoms above the level of the sea. This noted watering-place is of recent celebrity; in 1813, its springs flowed neglected through a region, which answered exactly to the description of the ancient German marshy forests, intersected by streams, and interrupted by rocky mountains. Since that time, however, at least eighty elegant buildings have sprung up round the mineral springs in this wilderness. In 1832, there were 1,528 visitors, of whom one hundred and forty were Prussians, seventy-eight Russians, and fifty-four Poles.

The walks in the neighbourhood are extremely agreeable. There are five principal mineral springs, strongly impregnated with mineral alkali and carbonic acid gas. These waters are largely exported, having been found very beneficial in congestions, scrofula and dropsy; but the respective springs differ so much in their chemical composition, that there is scarcely any complaint for which one or other of them may not be adapted.

Accounts of these springs are to be found in the forty-sixth volume of "Hufeland's Journal," and in Gerle's *Beschreibung der Böhmischen Bäder. Prag.* 1827. The nearest post-station is Plan.

Meinberg is a village and watering-place in the principality of Lippe-Detmold, very near the Prussian boundaries. The public buildings are good, and the musical band excellent. Gambling, beyond a certain extent, is not permitted. The family of the prince of Lippe visits Meinberg almost every year. The springs are alkaline and sulphureous. The nearest post-station is Detmold.

Nenndorf is a pretty village and watering-place, in the county of Schaumburg, belonging to the electorate of Hesse. The first buildings were erected here in 1786; the principal are, the electoral palace, three bathing-houses, and a lodging-house. The arrangements are admirably adapted for the convenience of visitors. There are three principal springs, each containing a large proportion of sulphur. For a detailed account of their

medicinal effect, see Wutzer, *Ueber die Schwefelquellen zu Nenndorf, Leipsig*, 1824. Nenndorf is a post-station.

Niederselters, or *Selters*, is situated in the dukedom of Nassau, on the road between Frankfort and Cologne, three leagues from Limburg, which is the nearest post-station. Its mineral springs, which are amongst the most celebrated in Europe, were discovered in the middle of the sixteenth century. In 1819, one and a half million bottles of these waters were exported, and in 1832 it had considerably increased. The temperature of the springs is 12° (R.) The present price of one hundred bottles is from fourteen to sixteen florins. This water increases the activity of the lymphatic and glandular system, and not being heating, is equally adapted for the plethoric and the debilitated. Bischoff published the latest work on the Selters' waters in 1826.

ANALYSIS OF BISCHOFF.

Carbonate of Soda	5·8553	grains desiccated in	16 oz.
Sulphate of do	0·2488	.....	do.
Muriate of do.	16·2855	.....	do.
Phosphate of do.	0·2748	.....	do.
Carbonate of Lime	1·8672	.....	do.
Carbonate of Magnesia	1·5958	.....	do.
Carbonate of Iron	0·1542	.....	do.
Silica	0·2892	.....	do.
Solid matter	26·5703	.....	do.
Carbonic Acid Gas	15·5714	cubic inches in	16 oz.

Nierenstein is a town in the grand duchy of Hesse, noted for its wine, and for a mineral spring strongly impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen. The nearest post-station is Darmstadt.

Nordheim, a town in the kingdom of Hanover, possesses a sulphureous spring, which was discovered in 1804. For an account of its medical efficacy, see Redderson's *Ueber die Zeugnisse und Krankheitsgeschichte in Jahre* 1807. *Einbeck*, 1808. The nearest post-station is Hanover.

Ofen is an important watering-place in Hungary, near Pest, from which it is separated by the Danube. This town has often been under Turkish dominion, of which there are many relics in

the neighbourhood. The principal buildings and spring are called the *Kaiser-bad;* the former was erected either by Mohamed Pascha or Hussein. In the hotel opposite it, there are still three Turkish baths. The price of a bath is from twenty-seven to thirty kreutzers. The stream of the principal spring turns seven mills, and gives at its rise eight hundred and forty cubic feet in an hour. The water is acid, saline, chalybeate, and sulphureous, and is an excellent remedy in diseases of the urinary organs, in rheumatic head-ache, and in diseases of the abdominal viscera. Ofen is a post-station.

Poesing is a royal Hungarian free town, near which rises on a vine-hill, a cold chalybeate spring. When first discovered, it was only used for the cure of intermittent fever; but it has since been found equally successful in stone and its kindred maladies. Besides iron, it contains mineral alkali and selenium. The bathing-house was erected in 1777; two sets of pipes run through all the rooms, the one containing hot, the other cold mineral water, so that the guests can bathe at pleasure. The surrounding country is exquisitely beautiful. To the south of the place is an immense oak-wood. Poesing is a post-station.

Puttbus is a small Prussian town, in Pomerania, near Stralsund, which is the nearest post-station. It lies in the isle of Rügen. It is the residence of the prince of Puttbus, whose palace is surrounded by a lovely park. There is a bathing-house near the town with the usual public buildings. Puttbus is rather a place of temporary resort for travellers through the fine island, than of residence for invalids.

Pyrmont is a market-town in the valley of the Emmer, in the principality of Waldeck. Its mineral springs were esteemed by Charlemagne, and during all the middle ages their reputation was unequalled. In the year 1556, there were 10,000 guests at Pyrmont from all parts of Europe. In the latter half of the seventeenth century, its fame diminished, partly, doubtless, on account of the writings of Bergzabern, who asserted that its waters were poisonous. Nevertheless, it continued to enjoy great celebrity, and was honoured, during the last century, by the presence of several crowned heads. The public and private buildings rival

those of most watering-places in Europe. There are twelve principal springs, the waters of which are of undoubted efficacy in diseases of females, nephritic complaints, scrofula, rheumatism, and diseases of the eyes. The latest author on Pyrmont is Harnier, *Resumé d'Analyse et d'Expérience sur les Eaux de Pyrmont.* This town is a post-station.

ANALYSIS OF THE PRINCIPAL SPRING (DIE TRINKQUELLE), BY BRANDES.

Carbonate of Soda	4·0235	desiccated grains in 16 oz.
Sulphate of ditto	1·5586	..... do.
Sulphate of Magnesia	3·1628	..... do.
Carbonate of Iron	0·7389	..... do.
Muriate of Magnesia	0·4276	..... do.
Muriate of Soda	0·4046	..... do.
Hydrothionate of Soda	0·0657	..... do.
Phosphate of Potash	0·1012	..... do.
Sulphate of Lithia	0·0030	..... do.
Sulphate of Lime	6·0320	..... do.
Carbonate of Lime	5·8733	..... do.
Carbonate of Magnesia	0·1933	..... do.
Carbonate of Manganese	0·0200	..... do.
Sulphate of Strontia	0·0217	..... do.
Sulphate of Baryta	0·0015	..... do.
Silica	0·0954	..... do.
Resinous matter	0·1133	..... do.
Solid matter	22·8364	..... do.
Carbonic Acid Gas	44·92	cubic inches in 16 oz.
Sulphuretted Hydrogen	0·84	..... do.

Rehburg is a town in the principality of Calenberg, in the kingdom of Hanover, at a distance from which of half a mile there are sulphureous and saline springs. They are prescribed with beneficial effect in gout, stiffness of the joints, irritability of the nerves, convulsions (such as epilepsy and St. Vitus' dance), and cutaneous diseases. The public buildings are good, and the town is a post-station.

Reinerz is a small town in the circle of Glatz in Prussian Silesia, at the distance of an English mile from which there are several mineral springs. Round them there are good public buildings of the usual description. The principal spring rises in a gray, clayey soil, tastes brisk, salt and vitriolic, and froths

considerably. In 1829, there were seven hundred and fifty two guests, a great part of whom were Polish nobles. The season begins in June and ends in August. The water is prescribed in diseases of the thoracic and abdominal viscera. In respect to payment, visitors are divided into three classes, the highest pays a shilling weekly for baths, the lowest, sixpence. Lodgings cost from one to four dollars weekly. The springs rise at an altitude of 1678 feet above the level of the sea, The neighbourhood is very attractive. Mosch wrote on these baths in 1832. Reinerz is a post-station.

Rügenwalde is a Prussian sea-bathing place, on the coast of the Baltic, at the mouth of the Wipper. There is a beautiful walk between the town and the bathing-establishment. Living here, as everywhere in Pomerania, is very cheap. This place is a post-station.

Salzbrunn is a large village in Prussian Silesia, in the circle of Waldenburg. It lies in a pleasing valley surrounded by lofty mountains. Of late years, the springs at this place have attained great celebrity, and it has improved accordingly. There are three scales of payment, viz. one shilling and sixpence, a shilling, and sixpence weekly, for the waters, for music and the promenades. The quantity of water exported annually, has increased of late years from less than twenty thousand to more than one hundred thousand bottles, some of which are sent as far as India. The number of guests has increased with still greater rapidity. In 1816, there were only sixty-six, and in 1832, thirteen hundred and twelve. In 1830, there were one hundred goats and twenty asses kept, to furnish whey, nine thousand quarts of which are annually consumed here. One of the springs, the *Oberbrunnen*, is a good remedy in thoracic affections, glandular swellings, and visceral obstructions. Another principal one, the *Mühlbrunnen*, requires considerable caution as to its administration. It is never prescribed to plethoric patients, but to such only as suffer from relaxation, and inactivity of the digestive organs. The air of Salzbrunn is very pure, and tolerably mild; and the surrounding country is rich in natural beauties. The latest and best writer on Salzbrunn is Zemplin, *Die Brunnen und Mol-*

kenanstalt von Salzbrunn. Breslau, 1832. Freiburg is the next post-station.

ANLYSIS OF THE OBERBRUNNEN, BY FISCHER.

Carbonate of Soda	8·000 grains in 16oz.	
Sulphate of ditto	3·200	do.
Muriate of ditto	1·012	do.
Carbonate of Lime	2·060	do.
Carbonate of Magnesia	1·100	do.
Silica	0·240	do.
Iron	0·018	do.
Solid matter	16·000	do.

In 16 oz. there are 98 cubic inches of Carbonic Acid Gas, in a free state, and 130 do. in combination.

Schandau is a town on the Elbe, in Saxony, four miles from Dresden, which has been noted for its mineral springs through the last century. There is here a massive bathing-house, which contains an elegant public room, and numerous chambers. The place is not much frequented, notwithstanding the beauties of the Saxon Switzerland, by which it is surrounded. The waters contain iron, and sulphuretted hydrogen. There are nine different springs. The nearest post-station is Dresden.

Schlangenbad, in the duchy of Nassau, is three leagues from Wisbaden, and four from Mainz. Its mineral springs are said to have been discovered two hundred years ago, by a shepherd, whilst tending his flocks. Their temperature is 21° (R.) The water is clear and inodorous. Hufeland speaks thus of its medicinal effects:—"It softens, gently relaxes, solves, purifies, and composes. I know no mineral water so adapted for those kinds of nervous disorders, which, particularly in females, cannot bear he slightest irritation. For such affections, the waters of Schlangenbad are an unique remedy."

This is a calm and retired place, where pleasure is only sought in private circles, or in solitude. The surrounding scenery is beautiful. A great proportion of the guests are females, with whom riding on asses is a favourite amusement. The latest work on this place is, *Schlangenbad und seine Heiltugend.*

Darmstadt, 1824. We have also the "Bubbles" of Sir F. Head. Schlangenbad is a post-station.

Schwalbach, or *Langenschwalbach*, is a small watering-place in the duchy of Nassau, four leagues from Wisbaden, and six from Mainz. It lies in a deep and narrow valley, at one end of which is a spring, called the *Weinbrunnen*, and at the other, a second, called the *Stahlbrunnen*. Both are surrounded by elegant buildings. The *Stahlbrunnen*, according to Hufeland, is an excellent remedy in those cases of debility which result from a too excited state of the sanguineous system, and from hemorrhage. The *Weinbrunnen* is noted for its richness in carbonic acid gas. All the Schwalbach waters are given with success, in the various affections of the lymphatic system, and in the long list of diseases resulting from obstructions and congestions of the abdominal viscera. The buildings here are excellent; the wine of the surrounding country cheap and good; and the agreeable social tone which prevails, tends, also, to make it a favourite with the public. The number of visitors is 1500 or 1600 annually. As the climate is rather cold, the season does not commence till the middle of June; it terminates at the end of August. The neighbourhood is extremely interesting. The latest writer on Schwalbach is Tenner, *Schwalbach und seine Heilquellen*, 1823. Sir F. Head has brought this place into English vogue.

ANALYSIS OF THE WEINBRUNNEN, BY BUCHHOLZ.

Carbonate and Muriate of Soda	½	grains in 16 oz.
Ditto of Lime	2	..... do.
Ditto of Magnesia	3	..... do.
Oxide of Iron	¾	..... do.

Of Carbonic Acid Gas there are 14¾ cubic inches in 16 oz.

Seidschütz is a town in Bohemia, a league and a half from Bilin, and a quarter of a league from Sedlitz. It lies on the bare declivity of a mountain, and near it rise at least twenty mineral springs. The water is bitter, inodorous, and as clear as crystal; it contains 160 grains of solid matter in 16 oz., of which, nearly half is sulphate of magnesia, the other half being principally composed of nitrate of magnesia, and of the sulphates of potash and soda; it also contains a little carbonic acid gas. The

temperature of the waters is always lower than that of the atmosphere. A hundred thousand bottles of them are exported annually. In the neighbouring town of Bilin, a great quantity of sulphate of magnesia is prepared from them. They are properly prescribed in all cases where laxatives are indicated. Hufeland particularly recommends them in cerebral congestion, catarrhal rheumatism, and in eruptions of plethoric subjects, particularly of young females. The nearest post-station is Leutmeritz.

Sedlitz is only a quarter of a league from the last-mentioned place, and its springs are of a similar nature. They became celebrated in consequence of the researches of Hoffman in 1717.

ANALYSIS BY NAUMANN.

Sulphate of Lime	8	grains in 16 oz.	
Carbonate of ditto	8	.....	do.
Sulphate of Magnesia	104	.....	do.
Muriate of ditto	3	.....	do.
Carbonate of ditto	3	.....	do.
Solid matter	126	.....	do.

Selters. See *Nieder Selters.*

Swinemünde is a sea-bathing-place in Prussian Pomerania. It is recommended by suitable establishments, situated half a league from the town, and separated from it by a wood. In 1833, the season commenced June 20, and ended September 20.

Teinach, or *Deinach*, is situated in the Black-forest circle of the kingdom of Wurtemberg. Its springs have a pleasant taste, and are rich in carbonic acid gas, alkaline salts, and iron. The water is of great service in nervous debility, paralysis, gout, jaundice, and cutaneous diseases. This place is not so much frequented as formerly. The nearest post-station is Calw.

Teplitz is a town in the Leutmeritz circle of the kingdom of Bohemia, situated at 30° North latitude, and 648 feet above the level of the sea. Its mineral springs were discovered A.D. 762. The town contains at present, 400 houses, and 2,500 inhabitants. There is a palace, and a great number of splendid buildings belonging to the nobility. Prices here are comparatively moderate. From three to ten florins are paid weekly for a room; a good

dinner at a *table d'hôte* costs from thirty to forty kreutzers. There are several charitable institutions, amongst which may be instanced, the Austrian, Prussian, and Saxon military hospitals. In 1830, there were eleven springs, and eighty-four baths. A single bath costs eight, ten, or twelve kreutzers. In 1810, the number of visitors amounted to 2,568, in 1822, to 2,600, but since 1828, it has at least doubled. The waters are particularly serviceable in all kinds of chronic rheumatism, in diseases of the joints and bones generally, in chronic ulcers and eruptions, in indurations, contractions, and nervous complaints. They are prejudicial in cases of phthisis, dropsy, and intermittent fever. In several diseases, gout for instance, the Carlsbad waters are taken first, and those of Teplitz afterwards. The latter are taken to second the effect of bathing, in cases of imperfect digestion, impeded abdominal circulation, and female complaints. Teplitz has been resorted to as a watering-place, since 1589. In 1712, Peter the Great visited it with a beneficial result. During the present century, the town has been altered and beautified in such a manner, that it may be said to have been rebuilt. The walks at Teplitz, during the season, present a most animated scene. It is one of the gayest of the German watering-places, and political conferences have of late conferred upon it universal celebrity. It is situated in a delightful neighbourhood. The latest writer on Teplitz, is Gross, *Die Teplitzer Heilquellen in ihrer positiven Wirkung.* Leipzig, 1832.

ANALYSIS OF THE HAUPTQUELLE, BY AMBROZZI.

Sulphate of Soda	1·696 grains in 16 oz.	
Muriate of ditto	0·776	..... do.
Carbonate of ditto	12·240	..... do.
Carbonate of Lime	0·340	..... do.
Silica	0·420	..... do.
Resin, and extractive matter	6·100	..... do.
Carbonate of Iron	0·036	..... do.
Solid Matter	15·608	..... do.

Of Carbonic Acid Gas there is 2·400 cubic inches in 16 oz.

Travemünde, a town and sea-bathing place belonging to Lubeck, is situated on the border of the North Sea. The sur-

rounding country is flat and not very agreeable. The town, from which the bathing-establishment is a quarter of a mile distant, is poor and unimportant. Prices are high at Travemünde, compared with other German watering-places. Lubeck is the nearest post-station.

Warmbrunn. See *Hirschberg.*

Wisbaden, the capital of the duchy of Nassau, is celebrated for the medicinal efficacy of its mineral springs, and for the elegance of its public buildings. This is one of the most ancient watering-places in Germany, and is mentioned in the works of Pliny. The town lies in a deep valley, and contains 600 houses, and about 6,500 inhabitants. The number of visitors annually, amounts to about 5,000. The season begins in May, and often does not end till October. The temperature of the springs varies from 140° to 150° (F.) The waters are powerful remedial agents; they act chiefly on the cutaneous and glandular systems, on the intestines, and vessels of the abdomen. They are uncommonly beneficial in chronic rheumatism, in all forms of gout, in scrofula, congestion, and nervous affections. A good writer on Wisbaden, is Peez, *Wiesbadens Heilquellen und ihre Kraft*, 1823.

ANALYSIS OF THE WATERS.

Muriate of Soda	46·$\frac{7}{15}$ grains in 16 oz.
Sulphate of ditto	8·$\frac{52}{75}$ ..... do.
Muriate of Lime	5·$\frac{4}{21}$ ..... do.
Carbonate of ditto	1·$\frac{1}{5}$ ..... do.
Muriate of Magnesia	0·$\frac{13}{28}$ ..... do.
Carbonate of ditto	0·$\frac{27}{77}$ ..... do.
Alumina	0·$\frac{13}{28}$ ..... do.
Extractive matter	2·$\frac{7}{15}$ ..... do.
Carbonate of Iron	0·$\frac{5}{28}$ ..... do.

Of Carbonic Acid Gas, there is 5½ cubic inches in 16 oz.

Wildbad is a small town in the Black-forest circle of the kingdom of Wurtemberg, five leagues from Calw, which is the nearest post-station. It is kept so warm by subterraneous springs, that no snow lies on it, and the grass grows in winter. These springs, which are the only warm ones in Wurtemberg, flow out of a granite rock, and are received into basins, one of which is 1,064 feet in circumference. The temperature of some of these springs is 30° (R.)

CHAPTER XV.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN THE SEVERAL STATES OF GERMANY.

AUSTRIAN ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.

The order of the Golden Fleece was instituted by Philip, duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with Isabella, princess of Portugal. Its statutes are dated November 27, 1431. The sovereigns both of Austria and Spain confer the dignities of this order with almost the same decoration. No knight, with the exception of ruling powers, can wear any other order with that of the Golden Fleece.

The order of Maria Theresa was founded by the empress whose name it bears, during the Seven Years' War, and is only conferred for military services. The number of its members is unlimited; they are divided into three classes; viz., the grand crosses, the commanders, and the knights. There are eight pensions of 1,500 florins for the first class, sixteen of 800 florins for the second, one hundred of 600 florins for the first division of knights, and one hundred of 100 florins for the second division. The widows of members pensioned or not pensioned, receive the half of the pension corresponding to the rank of their husbands.

The order of St. Stephen was founded May 5, 1764, by Maria Theresa, and is conferred as a reward for talent and military services. The grand mastership is attached to the crown of Hungary. Its members are divided into three classes, and every Austrian becomes a privy-councillor on receiving the grand cross or that of a commander.

The order of Leopold was founded January 8, 1808, by Francis I., and was intended to serve as an acknowledgement and recompense of the services rendered to the state, and to the imperial house, by the Austrian nobility. The number of members is unlimited.

The order of the Iron Crown was instituted February 12,

1816, by Francis I., to commemorate the re-union of the Italian provinces with the Austrian empire. All are admitted into it, without any distinction of rank, who have given strong proof of attachment to their sovereign, or who have signalized themselves by any useful interprise. There are twenty knights of the first class, thirty of the second, and fifty of the third, the princes of the imperial house not included.

The Teutonic order was instituted in 1190, by Frederic, duke of Suabia, who intrusted to its members the defence of the Holy Land, the protection of the church and its ministers, of widows and orphans. Henry Walpot of Bassenheim, was its first grand master. The order obtained territories from the duke of Masovia, for serving against Prussian Pagans in the year 1227.

After the loss of the Holy Land, the grand master fixed his residence, first at Venice, and subsequently at Marburg. The power of this order was on the increase till 1350, after which it began to decline. It lost a great part of its Prussian possessions by the second treaty of Thorn (1466).

In 1525, the grand master, Albert of Brandenburg, was made hereditary duke of East Prussia, under Polish supremacy; then the sovereign of the order took up his residence at Marienthal (1527), and was received a member of the circle of Franconia.

In 1792, the order was in possession of the grand mastership of Marienthal, and of eleven bailiwicks. By the peace of Luneville (1801), it lost the bailiwicks of Coblenz, of Altenbriesen, of Lorraine, and a part of those of Alsatia and Burgundy. It received as an indemnity the chapters, abbeys and convents of Vorarlberg in Austrian Suabia, and all the disposable convents of the dioceses of Augsburg and Constance, except those of Brisgovia.

Baden took possession of the territories of the Teutonic order, December 3, 1805, and, afterwards, during the various changes which succeeded, they were variously distributed. Finally, by virtue of a decree of the congress of Vienna, the archduke Maximilian of Austria was invested with the grand mastership of the order, and as such, entitled to receive the revenues from its possessions at Frankfort on the Main, and in Silesia.

Order of St. John of Jerusalem at Malta, of which the Grand-Priorate is in Bohemia.

The grand prior of this order obtained in 1546, of the Emperor Charles V., the dignity of prince of the empire, and a seat and voice in the German diet. The order had possessions on the left bank of the Rhine, comprehending eleven square miles, containing 19,800 inhabitants, and yielding an annual revenue of 143,000 florins. In exchange for these, it received, in 1803, the abbeys of St. Blaise, Trudpert, Schuttern, St. Peter, and Tennenbach, and their dependencies, yielding an annual revenue of 154,000 florins. During the French wars the order met with various disasters, which led to its suppression in several states.

At present, Austria possesses the court of the order at Frankfort, and holds its sovereignty; but all that now remains to it in Germany, is the grand priorate of Bohemia, and some commanderies in Austria, Moravia, and Prussian Silesia.

Other Austrian orders are those of *Elizabeth-Theresa* and of the *Starry Cross*. There is a medal for Military virtue, and of Civil honour, a cross of honour in gold and silver, and a mark of distinction for veterans.

THE BADEN ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.

The order of Military merit was instituted by Duke Charles Frederic, April 4, 1807. Its members are divided into three classes, to each of which appertain pensions, the highest of 400 florins. Generals only can receive the grand cross of this order.

The order of the Lion of Zaehringen was founded by Charles, grand duke of Baden, December 26, 1812, the birth-day of his duchess Stephanie, to commemorate the origin of the dukes of Zaehringen. Besides these, there is an order of Fidelity, and a cross of Military Merit.

BAVARIAN ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.

The order of St. Hubert was created by Girard V., duke of Berg, in 1444, to commemorate a victory which he had obtained over Arnaud d'Egmont. It was renewed in 1709 by the elector-palatine, John William. Only ruling princes and their descendants can receive the cross of this order.

The order of St. George. The crusading dukes of Bavaria, Otho III. and Eckard, are said to have been the founders of this order. It was renewed April 24, 1729, by the Emperor Charles VI., in honour of Religion, of the Immaculate Conception, and of St. George. Every knight, on his admission, takes an oath expressive of his devotion to the objects of the order. It is divided into three classes, and has ecclesiastical members; viz., a bishop, deans and chaplains.

The Military order of Maximilian Joseph was instituted by that sovereign, March 1, 1806, when the royal dignity was established in Bavaria. It is a recompense for all remarkable actions in the public service, not prescribed by ordinary duty, in which talent, presence of mind, or courage is displayed. The chapter of the order examines into the character of candidates, and presents them to the king, who decides on their admission. Pensions and various privileges are attached to this order, which is divided into three classes.

The order of Civil Merit of the Bavarian Crown, was created by the same sovereign, to reward merit in the civil service of the state, and distinguished patriotic virtue. It is divided into four classes; viz., twenty-four grand crosses, not including those who are knights of the order of St. Hubert, forty commanders, one hundred and sixty knights, and an unlimited number of persons decorated with gold and silver medals. He who has received the decorations of the three first classes obtains the privilege of assuming an hereditary title of nobility, but this privilege has lately been limited. The children of deceased knights receive a pension of from 250 to 300 florins.

The order of St. Clement was instituted September 29, 1693, by Joseph Clement, duke of Bavaria, and was renewed in 1808 by Maximilian Joseph. Its primitive object was the support of religion, and the defence of divine honour; but it has latterly been conferred as a reward of patriotic virtues. It is divided into four classes, of which the three first are composed of nobles exclusively; into the last, that of honorary knights, men of merit of all classes are admitted, without distinction of rank or religion.

The Royal order of Louis was founded by King Louis I., for those officials who have passed fifty years, satisfactorily to the government, in the civil, military, or ecclesiastical service of the state, or in that of the court.

The order of Theresa was instituted December 12, 1827, by Theresa, queen of Bavaria. It is intended for the daughters of noble families, in reduced circumstances, and, with it, is conferred a pension of 300 florins. Besides these, there is *an order of Elizabeth*, founded in 1766.

BRUNSWICK ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.

The order of Henry the Lion was instituted April 25, 1835, by Duke William, to reward civil and military merit, and eminence in the arts and sciences. It is divided into four classes. A cross of merit is also attached to this order.

A Cross of distinction for Military services was decreed April 1, 1833.

HANOVERIAN ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.

The order of the Guelph was instituted by the Prince-Regent, afterwards George IV., August 12, 1815, to commemorate the epoch when Hanover was liberated from the French domination and elevated to the rank of a kingdom. It is divided into three classes. The grand cross is only conferred on persons of the rank of lieutenant-generals, and for services rendered on occasions when they acted on their own authority. The dignity of commander is granted to the rank of major-general. But no rank is specified for the candidates for the knighthood of this order. The sovereign of this order is the king of Hanover.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD OF THE ELECTORATE OF HESSE.

The order of the Golden Lion was instituted August 14, 1770, by the landgrave Frederic II. It is divided into three classes, and is conferred as a reward for distinction in the civil and military service of the state.

The order of the Iron Helmet, created March 14, 1814, corresponds to the Prussian order of the Iron Cross. There are, also, an *order of Military Merit* and a *cross of Merit*.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD OF THE GRAND DUCHY OF HESSE.

The order of Louis was instituted by the grand duke Louis, August 25, 1807. It is divided into five classes. The grand cross is only conferred on princes, or persons with the title of Excellency.

A mark of honour for Military Service was established December 26, 1823.

PRUSSIAN ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.

The order of the Black Eagle was founded by Frederic III., elector of Brandenburg, January 18, 1701, on the day on which he was crowned king of Prussia. In 1835, there were one hundred and eleven knights of this order, of whom eleven were princes of the royal family; fifty-four foreign sovereigns and princes; fifteen Prussian knights; and thirty-one foreigners.

The order of the Red Eagle was formerly called the *order of Concord*, and received its present name in 1734. It was reformed by the margrave of Baireuth-Culmbach in 1777, and by him transmitted to Frederic William of Prussia, in 1791. Its knights rank next to those of the Black Eagle. It is divided into three classes.

The order of the Iron Cross was instituted by Frederic William III., and conferred on all who had distinguished themselves in the Liberation-War.

There are, also, a Prussian *order of Merit*, an *order of St. John*, and *of Louisa*. *A decoration of Merit* for having saved a fellow-creature from danger, was instituted February 1, 1835.

SAXON ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.

The Military order of St. Henry was instituted by Augustus III., king of Poland and elector of Saxony, October 7, 1736, as a recompense for brilliant military exploits. It is divided into three classes.

The order of Civil Merit was created by Frederic Augustus, June 7, 1815, on his return to Saxony. It is conferred on those who are distinguished for patriotic merit, and on foreigners who

have earned the gratitude of Saxony. It is divided into four classes.

There are, also, *an order of the Crown of Saxony*, and a medal of Military merit.

In the duchy of Saxe Weimar, there is *an order of Vigilance*, and in those of Saxe Gotha, Saxe Altenburg, and Saxe Meiningen, *a ducal order of the Ernestinian line*.

WÜRTEMBERG ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.

The order of Military merit was created February 11, 1759, by Charles Eugene, as a recompense for those officers who had distinguished themselves in the Seven Years' War. It was renewed in 1799, by Frederic I., and totally reformed in 1806. It is now divided into three classes.

The order of Civil merit, with which is now united *the order of the Golden Eagle*, was instituted by King Frederic, November 6, 1806. It is divided into three classes. Every councillor can claim it, who has served with zeal during twenty-four years; personal nobility is conferred with it. This order is, at present, known by the name of the *order of the Crown of Wurtemberg*.

There are, also, an *order of Frederic*, and a *medal of Civil Merit in gold and silver*.

Since the desire of distinction is inherent in mankind, and has been the source of many of the greatest actions and works which have embellished and benefited society, we cannot join with those who profess to depreciate such rewards. When profusely distributed, they lose, of course, a portion of their value; but there are many individuals who do not desire money, and who require some such stimulus as an incentive to exertion.

CHAPTER XVI.

REFLECTIONS ON THE POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONDITION OF GERMANY.

NOTHING appears more easy, at first sight, than to deliver an oracular sentence on the morality, the refinement, the hospitality, and the disposition of various countries and cities; a visit of a few weeks suffices with some to afford the requisite data, and others seat themselves on the tripod after a casual intercourse with four or five natives, or supported by the experience of a few adventures at an inn. It appears to me that the only safe road to experience on this head lies in the domain of Statistics; it is only by a large comparison of facts, published by the respective local authorities, that an approximation to the truth can be attained; and I refer with far more confidence to such documents scattered throughout this volume, than to the following personal impressions.

To deliver a correct opinion on the political condition and sentiments of any given country is one of the most difficult tasks that can be attempted; which any one will admit who observes the diversity of sentences pronounced respecting the tendencies of his own countrymen. We find, in fact, in every nation, that society is divided into four or five political classes, each of which supposes itself to be infallible, and the traveller is generally converted to the tenets of that sect, whatever it may be, into which he happens to have been thrown by accident, by his position in life, or by his previous tastes. One party is for rudely pushing forwards, another is disposed to progress cautiously, a third is willing to stand still, and a fourth entertains an Epicurean carelessness as to every movement, except that which may interfere with his own amusements or pursuits. I shall endeavour briefly to sketch out the general outline of political views and of social life in Germany, but with little hope of success, and with no expectation of satisfying all judges.

The complaint is sometimes heard in Germany, that it does not form one great empire; that it is so much subdivided as to lose the importance and consideration, which ought to attach to so many millions of people; and some look forward with eager anticipation, to the period when this wish may be consummated. Others more soberly confine their views to the possible formation of two great states out of the numerous elements, of which Austria and Prussia might form the centres. But it is difficult to foresee all the good which is imagined by speculators, as likely to accrue from such a centralisation of dominion. The manufacturers of Germany are already boldly competing with those of England and France; its maritime relations are not capable of any very considerable extension, because nature has stinted sea-ports to it. As far as political and military weight can go, Germany has earned for itself a dignified preponderance. What more is to be obtained from this desired fusion of states? Is a larger portion of freedom, more prosperity, more happiness, described in the visionary distance? There are some advantages which a native of Germany possesses in a higher degree than any other European. One of these consists in the greater number of employments which lie open to his ambition and his talents. All the numerous German states afford existence to their own respective cabinet ministers, envoys, generals, dignitaries, and civil officers, of various denominations. In some situations, which only a single individual fills in England and France, perhaps twenty individuals are installed throughout Germany. England sends only one minister to France, while Germany sends about thirteen; and the same observation applies to several other functions*. In short, a German enjoys several chances of obtaining an honourable post for the exercise of his

* According to Schön, the following is the comparative number of persons employed in the administration of the State in different countries: namely,

In Scandinavia - - -	1 in 294
Spain - - -	1 — 462
Prussia - - - -	1 — 630
England - - -	1 — 1000

(See his *Allgemeine Geschichte und Statistik der Europäischen Civilisation*, p. 223.)

talents or industry, where the Englishman and Frenchman have only a single ticket in the lottery of life. The same advantage is extended to the Germans who cultivate literature and science. In the British Islands, we have, perhaps, five universities which correspond in character to the thirty German universities; add to this, that a German university contains usually about twice the number of professors, who are included in the English ones. But the German states also display innumerable colleges, gymnasiums, and lyceums, not to be found in any similar proportion among ourselves, and each marshalling its own peculiar array of professors, curators, librarians, and other such officers.

There are hundreds among us capable of filling such situations, with distinction to themselves, and with benefit to the public; but they have no opportunities of obtaining such favourable positions, and they linger in obscurity, sometimes in involuntary idleness. Some, indeed, may profess to despise such honours —and the theory of indifference is very convenient; but if we regard life with a practical eye, it is impossible to deny that the opportunity of earning fame and employment, is both encouraging to individuals, and profitable to the public. A much smaller income suffices, where the station yields some dignity— and no one ever despised the respect of those among whom he lives, but the man who was unable to attain it.

Let us examine another benefit which the minute division of Germany into independent states, confers on the German public. Every sovereign, however low in the scale, is anxious to distinguish and embellish his territory; accordingly, he forms museums of antiquities, and of natural history; he collects large public libraries; he creates academies for the fine arts; he plans extensive gardens, and other places of recreation for his subjects. And thus, for one such establishment in England and France, we shall find about twenty in Germany—of all which, the public partake most freely. The inhabitant of a great provincial town in England or France, must travel to London or Paris in search of such objects; but the citizen of Munich, or of Dresden, is not obliged to wander to Berlin or Vienna, in pursuit of that which lies near his own door.

Examples of this sort might be drawn without end. It would be easy to show in what respect Stuttgard differs from Newcastle, or Weimar from Narbonne, but it is unnecessary to multiply comparisons. Many persons will reply, that in order to purchase such privileges, the poorer classes suffer, for the benefit of the middle and higher ones, and that taxation presses heavily, in order to bring about such results. But on personal examination, it will be found that the peasantry and artisans of Germany, are not less happy than the corresponding ranks in the greater states of Europe, although their wants and enjoyments may differ in quality; nor can it be with truth asserted, that the German is more heavily taxed, in proportion, than other Europeans.

Such remarks will not be misinterpreted into an attempt to maintain that Germany is the most fortunate country in Europe, and to undervalue that which is excellent among ourselves, and our neighbours. I trust that no one will suspect me of a disposition to depreciate our own father-land; indeed, on account of a former work on *Medical Statistics*, I have been taxed with undue partiality towards our own country. My only object is to state with candour, the advantages which flow from that which many are disposed to call an evil source—namely, the partition of one great country into several kingdoms.

It must be admitted, that this subdivision of the great German family does not tend to induce mutual affection among all its component members; the innate love of country, which is one of the best gifts of our nature, becomes diluted, and sometimes entirely evaporates. A German is sometimes heard to wish, that Fortune had created him the native of some other more compact country; and thus he becomes an excellent colonist, an accommodating traveller, and readily forgets in new lands, the usages of the old home; in short, he is too pliant, too diffusive.

The expenditure attendant on so many courts, is one of the arguments which is sometimes adduced against them—but this is counterbalanced by the paternal and unrestricted welcome which invites the people to a participation in the enjoyments which are thus obtained. Every palace, gallery, garden, and park is open; the money which is received from the subject, is returned to him

in a considerable degree, in the form of mental and bodily amusement; and assuredly, few private individuals in other countries, however wealthy, are in the habit of emulating the German sovereigns in this respect.

In countries, indeed, which have long been subjected to an absolute rule, or to a government approaching to absolutism, we find that much more pains are taken to provide amusements for the lower classes, than among limited monarchies and republics. The reasons are obvious,—but, whatever they may be, the results are visible in every part of Germany, where the most abundant means of recreation are brought into action for the use of those who cannot afford to lay out gardens, nor to collect parties of friends at their own houses, nor to purchase tickets for spectacles and concerts. Another feature equally pleasing and usually prominent in such countries, is, a gracious and cordial familiarity prevailing between the highest and the lowest. This friendly intercourse is owing, indeed, to the extreme dependance of the lower upon the higher, which renders the kindness safe and unabused; and another cause lies in the ubiquity and strength of the police, which is ever awake and present to prevent misconduct. Madame de Genlis, in this spirit, contrasts the rural fêtes which were so frequent in France before the first revolution,—at which the lord and lady of the village danced freely among their rustic guests,—with the absence of all such intimacy which she found to prevail in France under a representative government.

Let us not be supposed, in enumerating such agreeable peculiarities, to prefer a gilded and tinkling despotism, to the independence of free citizens; but the truth must still be told. Every form of human affairs has its bright and its gloomy aspect; we cannot unite in any one system, all imaginable blessings; but those who have not gained one prize, may at least be consoled with the possession of another. In proportion as free institutions advance, men appear to have a tendency to separate themselves into small knots, to insulate themselves from the mass; there is less familiarity between various classes; a desire to seek enjoyment in one's own room, in one's own circle, arises, instead of blending with an unlimited public, for the sake of mutual support, protec-

tion, and exhilaration. Happy and wise are those who, blest with a birthright of free institutions, can still seek to make those around them happy, instead of confining their solicitude to their own immediate group or coterie.

Let us borrow from Germany a little more of this frank and courteous deportment towards those who happen to be born a few degrees lower than ourselves in the scale of wealth, rank, or education. The grand remedy for most of the evils of England must be sought in a more intimate approximation of the different grades of society; it is not money which is needed, *that* is everywhere throughout England most liberally dispensed; but a little more communication, less dread of contamination from impure mixture, a softening of asperities of manner, a greater readiness to greet,—these are the bands which alone are wanting to unite more firmly all the various members of our great community. Is the daughter of a peer, or of a country gentleman, or of a banker, or of a barrister, less modest, less feminine, less graceful, because she occasionally stands next in the public ball to the daughter of a respectable tradesman? Is the cottage only to be entered on the eve of an election? No man ought to be considered as a piece of lumber, to be made use of as a stop-gap, or as a barrier in the case of an emergency, and then to be thrown aside as useless until the next year of need. These remarks, which to some will appear coarse and ill-timed, proceed from one who, in all humility, would not only preserve all that is precious among ourselves, but who would gladly revive much that once prevailed, but which now appears to be losing ground.

It is not easy to decide on the positive amount or degree of political discontent in Germany, because its voice is in some states almost entirely suppressed, and in some others only escapes in a whisper, or in an obscure murmur. Few travellers, I believe, will affirm that there is as much actual discontent in Germany, as in France, although France has made a large stride on the road to freedom. Most philosophers have deemed that in England we have attained all the liberty which can be reasonably enjoyed; yet, here also, there is no paucity of grumblers. In England it is sometimes difficult to ascertain the nature of the

grievance, because different parties entertain totally opposite opinions; but in Germany, we believe that the most generally lamented evils are, the restrictions on the press, the impediments to locomotion from the passport system, the excessive spirit of interference on the part of the police, and the dictation of the Diet to the smaller states through the influence of the greater ones. In Germany, much of our own prosperity is attributed to the *non-interference* on the part of the government; while many among ourselves are perpetually invoking it to centralise, to undertake national education, and to stretch out its hand in every direction. The excessive propensity to reduce the most trifling facts to writing, to accumulate masses of useless documents, to register that which deserves to be forgotten, to multiply verbose forms of office, to transmit papers through a multitude of hands without receiving any improvement on their passage, is also one of the most prominent themes of complaint in Germany. In Bavaria, the ministry of war got rid of seventy thousand statements in one year, which had been slumbering in its portfolios. In Prussia, the most trifling judicial matter, whose solution depends on a higher court, passes through the hands of forty-eight persons, before the parties interested receive any notice or summons. (*Schön*, p. 223.)

Among the national peculiarities, the excessive addiction to *smoking* has been reproached, but unreasonably. In every part of the world, and in every class of society, some mode of obtaining solace or relaxation after fatigue or toil, some excitement or stimulant, is resorted to, and happy are those who have recourse to an amusement so comparatively innocent. It is certain that this habit disposes the mind to serenity, to a mild repose, to contentment, and to cheerfulness; a smoking community is never a riotous, nor a pugnacious, nor a brawling one; and it would be difficult to discover anywhere a populace more good-tempered, peaceful, and inoffensive, than that of Germany. At all events, such an amusement will be preferred to the glass of spirits continually repeated during the day, and too frequently closing it in bloodshed,—or conducting gradually its victim to a premature grave,—or to the living tomb of character, industry, and decency.

We ought not to be too fastidious towards the innocent amusements of others, and especially of the peasant and the artisan when they only entrench upon the prerogative of the organ of smell. The German labourer, seated at a table in a public garden, quietly smoking his pipe, listening to excellent music, and surrounded by his family, is no mean spectacle of human happiness and respectability*.

It has long been thought, both by Englishmen and by foreigners, that no country presents so many specimens of originality of character, of various tastes and habits, of eccentricity in modes of thinking and acting, as England. Whatever may have once been the case, I am inclined to believe that this distinction no longer belongs pre-eminently to England, but that the palm, in this respect, must be assigned to Germany. It is possible that Germany may at present resemble, in some features, the aspect which our country, perhaps, presented a century ago. But in England, we perceive, in our own time, a tendency rather to the adoption of one uniform standard in dress, in deportment, in habits of life, and in amusements: instead of studying to please themselves, most persons among us appear to strive after the attainment of a tame *uniformity*. As soon as any fashion or taste becomes once known in England, it rapidly circulates through the extremities of the kingdom; even in dinners, in furniture, in phrases, each seems to sacrifice the individual on the altar of the community. The prejudices and opinions of our neighbours are studied and dreaded; the voice of the world is alone heard, and equally in public and in private becomes the regulator of our daily movements. The circumstance is probably mainly owing to the rapid and constant communication which occurs between all parts of our country, and forms us into one large family; the general disposition is thus to look upwards and around, instead of to turn inwardly. When an English

* The habitual fare of the German peasant is extremely moderate: it is chiefly composed of a black heavy bread, usually rye,—with vegetables, and the produce of the dairy; the returns to the Poor Law Commissioners add, "meat once or twice a week;" but meat is a rare luxury in many rural districts;—a little weak milk-coffee is highly prized. I believe that the Prussian private soldier has a daily ration of half a pound of meat.

physician visited the German phrenologist, Gall, at Paris, he found him in an apartment tenanted by innumerable birds; Gall said to him with a smile, "You would be afraid of doing this in England." The Germans, in short, are less the slaves of fashion and of exclusive tastes, than probably any other great European people; each considers his own means and inclinations, and pursues them without deference to others, and also without offence; no one *stares* in Germany at a *deshabille*, no one is surprised at an uncouth coat; no one paragraphs his follies, parties, furniture, or writings, in the newspaper; but an unpretending independence of character passes current and unnoticed.

Since nowhere in the world exist such ample and easily accessible institutions for education as in Germany, we are naturally led to inquire into the influence which they exert upon the well-being of society. There is no science, and there are very few arts, which may not there most easily and very cheaply be studied by all who are desirous; the means of a decent education are open to all,—are almost forced upon all; and the facilities of acquiring a most complete education are denied to none. What, then, are the fruits which this deeply-rooted and widely-spreading tree are found to produce? The answer is most difficult; we are anxious to afford it impartially. It lies in a simple fact, which is too often excluded from the argument of education; whatsoever education may be given to mankind, one half of the number who nominally receive it will scarcely be found to have derived much permanent and final advantage from it, or to retain much in their memory. Lecture-rooms may be opened gratuitously, books may be accumulated, but early impressions, accidents, indolence, and bad dispositions will defeat our expectations. It is a melancholy truth, but it must be told. Although a small knot of individuals in Germany is more learned than a similar number to be found in any other country, who create and devour more books than any others, yet it will hardly be asserted, that the bulk of the German nation are more virtuous, more wise, more agreeable, more temperate in the enjoyments of life, more useful in their generation, than the corresponding mass of some other European communities, which possess the opportunities of mental

improvement in a more limited extent. It is one thing to learn, and another to retain and to practise; when the studious and the practical combine in the same individual, then alone is the higher character of man developed;—but such an union occurs rarely any where, and not often in Germany. We admit with pleasure one distinguished result of education in Germany,—the respect which is paid to the literary and scientific character. On the other hand, it must be confessed, that the most favourable position, with regard to mental cultivation, conducts there more frequently to a refined taste in the fine arts, or to a barren erudition, than to those pursuits which have for their aim the general improvement of humanity. The German will reply, that his exclusion from active political life is the source; but a wide field is still open for all the best energies of his nature, in the cultivation of the Christian character, and one in which there are fewer competitors, and a surer recompense, than in the chamber of deputies, or in the columns of a newspaper. Unsettled principles of action are too often his blemish.

It appears to me that one essential defect in the system of German university education, is the absence of a good pervading instruction in religion; it is true that there are numerous theological courses delivered for the benefit of students destined for the church, but these do not reach the mass of other pupils: *they* do not necessarily participate in this first and last requisite of an elevated education*. Every science is copiously taught, is almost overtaught, except that master-science which alone teaches us rightly to apply all the rest, without which all the rest are comparatively valueless, and which, if not sown in the earlier years of our existence, will seldom find a fertile soil. We have alluded to this subject in the chapter devoted to the religious state of Germany.

The condition of the female sex in every situation depends

* The student who attends a German university is not compelled, as latterly at Oxford and Cambridge, to study the history, evidences, and text of the Christian religion, unless he is destined for the church. This is the most important improvement that has been ever made in academical education; its results are already visible in the universities themselves, and in the character of the present and rising generation.

upon the example which is placed before her, and on the treatment which she experiences from the stronger portion of the community; and nowhere is this truth more palpable than in Germany. There the temperament of woman is cast in a happy mould; gentle, kind, unambitious, unaffected, she is less intent upon adorning herself, than on administering to the happiness of those around her; she is fenced round with few artificial restraints; and nowhere is the natural woman more distinctly discernible beneath the social crust. But her feelings are warm, her taste for pleasure is lively; she continually breathes the atmosphere of the song, and of the dance; in society she often meets with too much laxity of opinion and usage; and her full and confiding heart requires a helpmate on whom to lean through life. When this support is granted to her, she generally exhibits all the domestic virtues in their vernal bloom. When transplanted to a strange soil, she usually reflects honour on the country which gave her birth, not less by the numerous minor accomplishments which embellish our present existence, than by the habits which prepare us for a future one.

It must be admitted, notwithstanding, that the facility of obtaining divorces in the Protestant states, and the large proportion of natural children, are the weak side of German morality: but it would be easy to prove, that it is not on the female inhabitants that the blame is to be balanced.

The Germans are not so domestic a people as the English, yet, perhaps, more so than the French. The taste of the middle and lower classes carries them incessantly to public gardens, coffee-houses, the table d'hôte, and the theatre. In the neighbourhood of every town are one, two, three, or more public gardens, in which a good band of music is stationed at the hours of resort; some parties promenade, in a few even dancing is practised, but the greater part of the visitors seat themselves in the open air, consuming ices, coffee and beer, the women often knitting, the men usually engaged in smoking. The musicians send one of their number round to the company, who collects, on a sheet of music, a few pence from the liberal. The theatre is a universal amusement, and a constant theme of criticism and conversation.

A large portion of the male population dine daily at the table d'hôte, not long after mid-day, and here a considerable portion of their time is dissipated. The higher orders, in addition to the theatre, derive one of their chief gratifications from a summer visit to some mineral spring, and here they live altogether in a family manner; entire families at these baths dine and sup, and even breakfast, in public. In the smaller towns, the men of learning confine themselves unintermittingly to their cabinets, and it is in such scenes that the real learned German is most in his element; an individual almost totally distinct from the rest of his European colleagues, in the intenseness of his studies, the extent of his acquirements, and the simplicity of his manners. The cosmopolitan man of learning, who understands most of the European languages, and some of the oriental ones, who is conversant with almost every science, is, perhaps, only to be found, at the present moment, in Germany: he differs from most other specimens of the same class, not only in his attainments, but in his scrupulous exactitude, in the conscientious manner in which he weighs evidence, and records every minute shade of fact, and also in his impartiality, and in that genial love for his calling which enables him to disregard pecuniary profit, and confines his anxiety to the noble ambition of instructing his brethren, of conciliating the suffrages of the wise, and of laying the foundation of a posthumous fame, which, alas! is too rarely completed into a lasting edifice. Those who are in search of precise, faithful and extended collections of facts, which omit nothing, and trace every thing to its source, must turn exclusively to the literature of this country, which, indeed, forms a vast and inexhaustible mine, in which the patient German collects the native ore, while more careless or more idle labourers from other countries too frequently carry off the precious metal, without always acknowledging the friendly hand which has worked and which continues to work during night and day.

Frankness, honesty, simplicity and diffidence, are original characteristics of the national character, sometimes disappearing on the frontiers, but strongly marked in the centre, and above all conspicuous in the smaller towns, and in the rural districts.

Modesty is a peculiarity of the German character, which appears, indeed, to a certain degree innate in all the great family diffused from this stock throughout the North of Europe. It is only in the Germanic family, in which our own race is of course included, that the characteristic of *diffidence* is to be usually seen, which manifests itself under various forms, but especially in a respect for the opinions of others, in a distrust of one's own power of pleasing, and in an earnest endeavour to conciliate and to accommodate. It would be invidious to pursue this topic into the various national comparisons which it is capable of suggesting. In the countries in which this trait is not part of the national character, it is too often misinterpreted into pride and arrogance, of which it is the very antipodes.

The natural modesty of the German character often falls into a painful and unworthy extreme, when it undervalues all that belongs to its own soil, and exaggerates the merits and beauties of other scenes. No country, perhaps, presents a greater variety of interesting objects of nature and art, but instead of appreciating that which belongs to himself, the German too frequently indulges in a vague and meretricious rapture, inspired by reminiscences or visions of other regions*. Schiller finely, but in a desponding and too timid mood, touches on this chord of his countrymen, and tries to awaken it to a more genial tone. His ode is too instructive to be curtailed.

* This self-abasing spirit, so constantly inculcated by our Heavenly Teacher on the individual man, is no longer a virtue when it tends to depress the *national* spirit; a man should, if possible, be proud of his country, although arrogance cannot be tolerated in himself. The preference of French literature and manners so long exhibited by the rulers and nobility of former generations in Germany, deadened that warm and generous enthusiasm which naturally clings to the soil of our birth; Frederic the Great scarcely deigned to read a German book, and his intimate friends and councillors were foreigners. The princes and higher classes of that time were glad to correspond and to converse in French; and every native taste and talent were depreciated as vulgar. When Voltaire was once arranging some Prussian grenadiers as subordinate actors at a rehearsal of his tragedy at Potsdam, he dared to exclaim, because they could not comprehend his French, "J'ai demandé des hommes, et l'on me donne des Allemands." Bitter were the fruits which this anti-national deportment produced in Germany. At the *commencement* of the late wars, the German people did not easily awaken from this torpid attitude into which they had been so unwillingly thrown; the house was ready swept and prepared for the foreign invader, who seems to have been regarded as a superior being.

"Dear friends, there have been more glorious times than ours, that is not to be disputed; and a nobler people have once existed. Were even history silent about it, a thousand stones dug from the bosom of the earth, give striking evidence. But they are gone; that highly favoured race has vanished. We, we are living. Ours are the passing hours, and the living have their claims. Friends, there are, as the far-travelled wanderer tells us, happier regions than the country in which we live indifferently well; but if nature denies us much, knowledge is friendly, smiling upon us, and our hearts are warmed by its lights. Though the laurel does not prosper here, and the myrtle becomes the prey of our winter, yet the cheerful foliage of the vine thrives to crown our brows.

"There is, no doubt, more bustle on the busy shores of the Thames, in the market of this earth, where four worlds exchange their treasures. A thousand vessels arrive and depart; every thing most precious may be had there, and money, the divinity of the world, rules triumphant. But it is not from the troubled mud of brooks, swollen by heavy rains, that the image of the sun is reflected; this plays only on the smooth surface or the calm rivulet. The beggar at the gates of the castle of St. Angelo, has a more splendid dwelling than we in our North, for he beholds everlasting and unparalleled Rome. He is surrounded by a throng of beautiful and magnificent objects, and a second heaven, the marvellous dome of St. Peter, rises before him into the sky. But Rome, in all its splendour, is the tomb of past glory; it is only the fresh plant which buds in the cheering revolving hour which exhales life. Greater things may happen elsewhere, than with us in our little sphere; yet nothing new is seen under the sun. But on the boards that represent the world, we tranquilly behold the great deeds of all ages ingeniously passing before our eyes. Every thing in life is but repeated; imagination alone is ever young, nothing is free from growing antiquated, but what never and nowhere occurred*."

It is of little moment to discuss the character of others, unless we endeavour to deduce some results applicable, more or less, to the illustration and improvement of our own; and this reflection

* Translated by Boileau, in "The Linguist."

conducts us to the most delicate and difficult part of our brief estimate. A singular period has arisen in Europe, and is fast arriving at maturity; it consists in the rapid increase of knowledge in the lower classes, in the diffusion and misrepresentations of newspapers, in the augmentation of the middle ranks in number and wealth, and in the losses and confusion which the higher families have in many parts experienced, through the ravages of war, the plunder of foreign invasion, the changes of territory, and the whirlwind of revolutions. The problem, then, which awaits solution, and which earnestly demands the deepest consideration of the wise and virtuous, is, to regulate this new movement aright, and so to direct the helm, that the vessel may not lose its course, and that all on board may not be shipwrecked, with the exception of a few unprincipled and selfish passengers, who also must, at last, share the common fate.

In Germany, this new motion communicated to society is in a certain degree softened and eased by the friendly tone which, more or less, prevails among the different classes of the community; an extreme affability, beginning at the highest point, and gradually descending to the base, seems likely to prevent violent collisions, and to diminish the friction. A truth of inexpressible value in all the relations of life is there acknowledged and practised as a fundamental usage of intercourse; namely, that all are to be treated with respect, that no superiority of rank or fortune can warrant arrogance of demeanour, or pride of speech. Mankind will far more readily forgive even great vices than a breach of courtesy; and we have ample experience in all biography and history, that kindness and affability of manner form the real secret of conciliating golden opinions. It is not sufficient that laws should be equally administered between different ranks; it is still highly necessary, in order to preserve social harmony, that a cordial, gentle, and unpresuming deportment should be observed by those who are placed on an eminence, and whose example, whether good or evil, in this respect, will assuredly be imitated in various shades by all the intermediate classes, until we arrive at the lowest. It is impossible to deny, however painful may be the avowal, that a certain pride of deportment prevails frequently

in our own country; not at all confined to the higher classes, but very conspicuous in all, from which none is exempt in its intercourse with those below it, and which may be traced even in stronger characters in the farmer, the tradesman, and the domestic servant, than in the middle orders, and is again more prominent in the middle orders than in the highest. A certain bitterness of feeling is thus engendered, which, although it stimulates men to rise above their own original position to the one next above them, renders them too apt to entertain calumnious reports, to encourage the slander of newspapers, and to propagate scandal. A separation of interests and a mutual jealousy is thus fomented between the different classes, which, in calamitous and difficult times, will tend to harden the feelings of each class against the one above it, and to inspire a hateful satisfaction in witnessing the degradation of others. This sentiment of distrust and repulsion is unhappily encouraged by political incendiaries not confined to any one rank, but to be found in all conditions, who seek to propel themselves into an unnatural popularity, or to gain some temporary, sordid object, by declamations against the oppressions of the rich, against the miseries wilfully inflicted upon the poor, and by a sweeping abuse of the aristocracy to which they themselves belong, and whose spirit they themselves breathe in an inflated degree.

This so-called aristocracy, is not in England, the proper title of any particular set of men, but belongs equally to all; it is found in the habits, language, and behaviour of the servants'-hall, the vestry, and the coffee-room, as commonly as in the counting-house, the ball-room, or the race-course; and in all these places, it is far more highly coloured than in the palace, the college, or the literary and scientific meeting. No where, indeed, is aristocracy more legibly written than on some of those persons who inveigh most vehemently against it on the hustings and in legislative assemblies: and who, in the midst of their cheap public pretensions to universal equality, exhibit in the private scenes of life all the haughtiness, the illiberal prejudices and the exclusiveness which we are apt to attribute to despotic princes, but which is certainly seldom to be found among the rulers of Germany.

Would it not be more patriotic, more wise, more kind, instead

of holding out to the poor expectations and promises which are incapable of being fulfilled, instead of exasperating them against those on whose prosperity they ultimately depend, to encourage in them a taste for innocent pleasures, and to provide them with the means of enjoying them—such as public gardens, gratuitous schools for music, cheap concert-rooms, public libraries, nay, dancing-rooms*, and facilities for manly sports? Such are the elements of contentment, of cheerfulness, and of a friendly reciprocity of feeling and sympathy between the upper and lower classes, and not delusive suggestions of cheap bread, or of an impossible degree of reduced taxation. A desire and a necessity for relaxation are inseparable from all beings engaged in toil; it is the business, then, and the interest, equally as it is the duty, of legislators and of wealthy and influential individuals, to promote these objects. The artisan and the peasant have not the means, not always the requisite knowledge, to prepare suitable recreations on a large scale for their respective classes; they are thus driven insensibly, we may almost say inevitably, to the gin-shop, and the beer-house, at which fatal haunts after dissipating at the same time their scanty savings and their health, they return to their accustomed labour sullen and unrefreshed, while their wives and children have not only been denied any participation in their so-called amusements, but are suffering daily privations in consequence. These remarks may appear trivial to some; others will object to increasing the number of places of resort on the ground of the supposed attendant debauchery and bad company. But places of amusement might be easily promoted, from which the sale of spirits and of beer should be excluded, and a vigilant police might avert riot and theft as easily as in other countries. It is a libel on our countrymen to argue that they cannot use recreation without abusing it; but they cannot find it *unassisted;* they must be taken by the hand. The experiment has not yet been tried; but its timely adoption will tend to rivet more firmly the rapidly-dividing links of the social chain.

* I feel an humble satisfaction in having been one of the first to point out the want of public gardens at Manchester, in my Report on the Factory Commission of 1833.

CHAPTER XVII.

CENSORSHIP OF THE PRESS, AND STATE OF THE LAW RELATIVE TO LITERARY PROPERTY.

THE restrictions imposed on printing and publishing in a greater or less degree throughout Germany, form the most common theme of the discontented in that country, and a frequent subject of sympathy among foreigners. It is impossible to deny that the degree in which these are enforced is the greatest blot visible on the political aspect of Germany; although we willingly admit that freedom ought not to be corrupted into licentious calumny, and that this grating restraint, however mischievous so far as regards the publication of truth, exempts those who suffer it from numberless cruel inroads into the privacy of families, and from the circulation of atrocious libels whose bitterness can never be extracted or neutralized by the verdict of a jury.

Every work, or journal, before it can be printed, must be examined by a censor: for the different departments of literature, there are different censors, and whatever they please to strike out, cannot be printed. Formerly it was allowed to indicate where the censor had struck out any sentences by inserting dashes in their place, as — — —. But an ordinance of the Diet issued in 1832, has now forbidden this, because it was found that all newspapers and other publications which bore those marks of the censor's severity were eagerly sought after and readily sold. At present, however much an article may have been mutilated by the censor, the author is not allowed to publish it, until he has joined together the fragments to which it has been reduced, and made of them, moreover, a connected whole.

Occasionally, papers were published with only a few words straggling down a column, and with mangled paragraphs of which often no sense at all could be made. To supply the defi-

ciencies in these cases, and divine the missing adjectives, was very naturally looked upon at last as a dangerous exercise for the public ingenuity.

All books and periodicals are compelled to pay for the care which the censor bestows upon them, and are obliged often to remunerate him for depriving them of a part of their value. When he has examined his copy and made any alterations which he deems necessary, he delivers it to the printer, who is bound to submit to him the proof-sheet in order that he may satisfy himself that his alterations have been properly carried into effect. Having attended to this, he returns it, accompanied by a certificate that the work has been properly censured. Then, and not till then, can it be legally published. It might be supposed, that, after having been thus rigorously criticised, the work, once published, would have nothing more to fear from the hands of the police. But this is far from being the case. However strictly it may have been censured, it may still be seized and confiscated, and that too, without any indemnity to the proprietor, if it should happen to excite any unruly sentiments in its readers, or to offend the sensitiveness of men in office. This is another proof that there is no certain tenure of literary property in Germany, for no person can be certain that his works will not some time or other be confiscated, or, as it is technically called, suppressed.

The procedure with books is simple and summary enough;—they are seized, and once seized, they are never allowed to reappear. When it is a newspaper which has given offence, not only is the offending number suppressed, but its editors are not allowed to continue its publication, nor, what is more, to take a part in the direction of any other journal for the space of five years. But even such rigorous measures as these have not been deemed sufficient by the Diet. Tired of condemning single offenders, it undertook, in 1835, to suppress a wholesale mass of books. It decreed that all the works which had been already published by Heine, Gutzkow, Wienbarg, Mundt, Laube, Cottenkamp, and some others, should be confiscated, and further, that all which they might in future write should be condemned beforehand.

Let us now turn for an instant to some of the individual governments, and observe the manner in which they treat their literary men.

We will commence with Prussia, which has the reputation of being one of the most enlightened of the European states. A censor is installed in every Prussian town in which a printing-office exists, and in the smaller ones he is said to be generally the person who is at the head of the police. The instructions with which these officials are furnished forbid them to allow anything to be printed, which, according to their judgment, may be in any degree injurious to religion, to morality, or to the state. Though no license is allowed to the writer, the most extensive license is granted to his censors. They accordingly will not allow reproaches to be levelled against any act of the government. It may be said that an author has the right of appeal, but the delay and expense which attend it are such as to deprive it of solid advantage; the appeal, in fact, is directed not to an independent body, but to individuals who are the servants of the government. In Prussia, no person is allowed to become editor of a journal (political or literary), until he has proved before a committee specially appointed that he has safe opinions (*zuverlässige Gesinnungen*) on religion and politics. No person is allowed to send a manuscript out of the country to be printed, unless it has been first examined by his local censor. A work by a Prussian which has not been so censured cannot be introduced into the country, without incurring the risk of being seized as soon as the fact comes to the knowledge of the supreme college of censure (*Ober-Censur-Collegium*). Thus a Prussian author is not upon a level with foreigners, whose works are admitted after due examination of their contents. He must either consent to be censured or cease to write. About two years ago, on the publication, by Dr. Foerster, of a life of the eccentric Frederic William I. (the father of Frederic the Great), a royal ordinance appeared, forbidding all future historians who might treat of the house of Hohenzollern, to blame "unnecessarily" the ancestors of the ruling family, or to adduce any "superfluous" fact which might tend to their discredit.

In Saxony, a short time ago, the government was only prevented from imposing new fetters on the press, by energetic representations from the numerous booksellers of Leipsic, tending to prove that the accomplishment of such a project would be the source of their utter ruin.

In 1819, when the first severe measures against the liberty of the press issued from Carlsbad, it was announced that they were only to remain in force during six years. But at the expiration of that period they were tacitly renewed, and finally confirmed by the ordinances of June, 1834, in which the Diet at the same time makes a singular promise "not to impede in any way the free development of the national genius, as embodied in literature."

The German governments used formerly to make some pretensions to clemency in not punishing a troublesome author more severely than by confiscating his writings. They contrasted themselves advantageously on this score, with their neighbours, the French. But, at present, a comparison will terminate in favour of the latter. The following have been communicated to us as a few instances of the treatment which some modern literary men in Germany have experienced at the hands of their respective governments. Dr. W. Schulze, of Darmstadt, for writing in too free a style, was tried by a court-martial, because some ten or fifteen years before he had been an officer in the army; by this tribunal, he was condemned to five years' imprisonment. So, also, Seybold, a novelist, a native of Wurtemberg, has been for several years, and still continues, a prisoner, on account of his writings. And, in Bavaria, an author who is convicted of having treated the king with disrespect, is condemned, not only to be imprisoned, but to beg the king's pardon whilst kneeling before his image.

Such anecdotes as these may perhaps be exaggerated; few are in a position sufficiently favourable to enable them to ascertain the positive facts of a case, and least of all in countries where both sides are not always permitted to be freely stated. It must not, however, be supposed, that the same degree of rigour prevails in all the states; the states which have obtained a constitutional form of government appear disposed to relax it, but are from

time to time impeded in their laudable aim by the decrees of the Diet. I was informed at Berlin, in 1823, that not even a dancing master, nor a teacher of languages, nor an artist, could print his card or prospectus without previously submitting it to the supervision of the censor;—but a stranger is sometimes misled by ignorance or banter.

In all countries the author receives but slender protection from the laws; with the exception, indeed, of newspaper editors, few men enjoy less personal influence; and, until an international system is established on this head, their recompense will remain moderate, and their labour insecure. No general system exists in Germany, by virtue of which literary property is secured to its author. Most other civilized nations have some certain laws on this subject, but in Germany the security of literary property is entirely dependant on the caprices of the several governments composing the confederation. In some states it is protected, but in others, as, for instance, in Wurtemberg, and in Austria, any work may be pirated which has not been published under the especial protection of their respective governments. Before the publisher could undertake the edition of Goethe's works which appeared about ten years ago, he was obliged to solicit protection against piracy from each of the thirty-eight German governments —and it was granted to him in all cases as a privilege; and this is the only work which has appeared with the "privilege of protection" from the whole German confederacy.

In 1832, the Diet made a distinct promise to protect literary property. A committee composed of members of the Diet was appointed at Frankfort, for the purpose of taking measures to submit all such property to an uniform system of legislation throughout the country. But, as yet, the old abuses have neither been abolished nor abated.

A new law of literary property has, however, been ordained in Prussia at the commencement of the present year: it will perhaps be imitated in other parts of Germany. According to this regulation, which we copy from the *Literary Gazette*, "The authors of works of literature, the sciences, and the arts, in Prussia, are secured an exclusive privilege of publishing, multiplying, and copying them

during the term of their natural lives; and the same privilege is extended to their representatives for a period of thirty years from the day of their deaths. Violations of this privilege are punishable respectively with fines of from fifty to a thousand thalers, and by a confiscation of the pirated copies. The same privileges and protection are granted to anonymous and pseudonymous authors for fifteen years, and to academies, universities, and other corporations, for thirty years from the first publication of the works. Also, all persons printing and publishing sermons, delivered in churches, or lectures of professors, are deemed guilty of the same offence of piracy, and are liable to the same penalties. The following cases are not to be considered as piracies:—1. The reproduction of isolated passages from a work already printed. 2. The citation of isolated paragraphs, pieces of poetry, &c. in critical or historico-literary works, or in collections for the use of schools. 3. Translations of printed works. Translations, however, are to be considered as piracies under the following circumstances, viz.—Such as are made into German of a work published by a German author in any one of the dead languages; and when an author has published a work in several living languages at one and the same time, another is published in any or either of those languages in which it originally appeared. By subsequent provisions, the same protection is granted to the authors of works in geography, topography, natural history, and architecture, and other productions of a similar nature, and likewise to musical compositions. Further, all multiplications of paintings or drawings, by means of engravings on copper, steel, wood, stone, or other materials, are interdicted under the same penalties; and likewise of all casts or copies of works in sculpture. Another class forbids the publication of any works of art resembling originals, whether upon a larger or smaller scale than the originals, or under any other circumstances which may warrant their being considered as simple imitations of originals. All representations of dramatic works upon licensed theatres, without permission of their authors, are forbidden; and, if any such are made, the full receipts of the house, without any deduction for the expenses, and whether the piece is performed alone or in conjunction with others, are to be

payable as a fine; two-thirds of which are to be paid to the author, and the other third to the fund for the benefit of the poor of the place in which the surreptitious performance is made. The new law is applicable to all literary, scientific, musical, and dramatic works, and productions of the arts already in existence: this law is to be applicable to works published in a foreign state, in so far as the rights established in that state are conferred equally by the laws of the said state to works published in Prussia."

CHAPTER XVIII.

ANECDOTES OF THE NEWSPAPER PRESS.

ALTHOUGH in every German state, a system of censure for literary productions prevails, there is probably no country where so many periodical works are published. Every German loves to be an author, and almost all who have had a classical education, have, at one time or other, written an article in some journal.

Since the liberty of the press does not exist in Germany, almost all the newspapers are the mere organs of the various governments; a few maintain a show of independence, but the reality is impossible, under a regular system of censure. No newspaper can be established without the permission of government, and this permission is only granted to a privileged few. The German newspapers, consequently, can only be of general interest, in so far as they indicate the tendencies of their respective governments, or of any foreign power, such as Russia, which may have obtained some control in their direction.

Prussian Newspapers. The Prussian government has lately decreed that no person shall be allowed to edit a newspaper, who has not received his education at an university. Four political journals are published at Berlin. The first which we shall mention, is the State-gazette, (*Staatszeitung,*) which is the special organ of the government. It is edited by some official of the foreign department, (at present by M. Cottel,) and affords publication to statements and articles emanating from the ministry. Its size is that of the larger French newspapers; the first two and a half pages are commonly devoted to foreign affairs, and are principally filled with extracts from foreign journals; to home affairs not a column, and sometimes not even half a column, is devoted; the remainder of the journal is filled with reviews, scientific notices, and the like. Leading articles (as they are called in the English papers,) are not to be found at all in this journal; neither does it contain any discussions whatever on any branch of internal policy. The

chief correspondence which it inserts at present is from Spain and Portugal. Connected with the State-gazette, which appears daily, is a literary paper called the "Magazine of Foreign Literature" (*Magazin für die Literatur des Auslandes*). The State-gazette is supposed to sell about 9000 copies.

"The Gazette of Haude and Spener," (*die Haude und Spenersche Zeitung,*) is now the property of Dr. Spiker, librarian to the king, who is also its editor*. Its arrangement is almost the same as that of the State-gazette; but English politics are treated in it at greater length. It is edited in a Conservative tone. Raumer is its theatrical critic, and as such, enriches it with some excellent dramaturgic articles. This journal is published daily; it sells perhaps 14,000 copies, and is said to bring in a profit of at least 5000*l.* a year. Its form is that of our "Athenæum." It contains advertisements sufficient to cover all its expenses.

"Voss's Gazette," (*die Vossische Zeitung,*) is of the same form and arrangement as the last-mentioned. Its principal editor is M. Rellstab, well known in Berlin as a writer of fiction, and as a musical critic. This paper has the reputation of being somewhat liberal, but not in the sense in which liberalism is interpreted by an English Radical. It appears daily, except on Sundays, and has about 12,000 subscribers.

"The Weekly Political Journal of Berlin," (*das Berliner politische Wochenblatt,*) is perhaps the boldest, most talented, and most consistent advocate of the doctrines of absolutism which at present exists in Europe. According to its views of state-policy, an English Ultra-Tory would be sublimed into a Liberal. This journal was formerly edited by Professor Jarke, who from the talent he displayed in it, and the principles he advocated, recommended himself to the notice of Prince Metternich, from whom he received an appointment in Austria, where he at present resides. His successor, Major Streit, seconded by several

* This gentleman is well known to English travellers by his courtesy, hospitality, and extensive knowledge of our literature and language. To the literary world he is familiar, as the author of a good book of Travels in England, which has been translated into English and Dutch.

assistants, continues to wage his weekly war with no mean resources. This paper is by some regarded as an organ of the party which was conducted by the late Prince Charles of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. It has no very extensive circulation.

Besides these journals published in Berlin, a paper appears in the chief towns of every government district, (*Regierungsbezirk,*) after whose name it is called, as for instance, the "Gazette of Magdeburg," "of Cologne." On the whole there are twenty-five of these political journals. They are under the direct superintendance of a local censor, and are, nevertheless, not permitted to insert any article which has not already appeared in the State-gazette of Berlin. In their respective districts, they enjoy a monopoly of advertisements, *i. e.* every person who wishes to advertise, must advertise in them. If the editor of one of these provincial journals should consider himself harshly treated by the local censor, he has the right of appeal to the supreme president of the province, but this personage may happen to reside at a great distance, so that, if he decides in favour of the editor, (a case of unfrequent occurrence,) so much time must necessarily elapse before the decision can reach him, that the point at issue loses most of its importance.

"The Hamburg Impartial Correspondent," (*der Hamburger Unparteische Correspondent,*) was established more than a hundred years ago, and for the first fifty years of its existence was the only journal of any note in the north of Germany. It had formerly the reputation of being liberal, but is now said to be in the interest of the Russian government, which appears to send numerous articles of a semi-official character. It contains, also, sometimes, communications from Berlin, which look as if supplied by persons connected with the government.

"The Hanoverian Gazette," (*Hanöverische Zeitung,*) is edited by Dr. Pertz, principal archivist (*archivarius,*) of the kingdom of Hanover. Its politics are Conservative. It contains official communications, and publishes, from time to time, correspondence supplied perhaps by persons connected with different German governments, and attached to foreign embassies.

"The Gazette for Villages," (*Dorf-zeitung,*) appears at Hild-

burghausen, in the state of Saxe-Meiningen, and has a very considerable circulation amongst the German people. It is edited by the clerical superintendant, Nonne. It is written in a good, popular style; it always takes bold views of general subjects, and of politics as far as circumstances admit. It is published twice a week.

"The Leipzig Gazette" has a Conservative spirit, and has a noted correspondence from Berlin. It appears daily, except Sundays.

The Frankfort papers are the following:—

1. "The Gazette of the General Post-office" (*die Ober-Post-amts-zeitung*). This journal is edited by Dr. Thomas, and some of its articles are from the clever pen of Mr. Berly. Its politics are those of a moderate Whig; it is published daily.

2. "The Journal of Frankfort" (*das Frankfurter Journal*). This newspaper was established before the Thirty-Years' War, and is the oldest in Germany. The editor is Mr. Heller, whose articles are of a somewhat liberal tendency. It is a daily paper.

3. "The Journal of Frankfort," in French (*le Journal de Francfort*). The editor of this journal is Mr. Charles Durand, who formerly was editor of the "Journal de la Haye," and at present writes in a vein favourable to the Russian government. The Journal de Francfort contains numerous articles, which seem to have been written either at St. Petersburg, or by Russian diplomatists abroad. Some years ago, Mr. Durand resided for several months in the Russian capital, where he received marks of the imperial favour. He is a very able writer, and English readers, who desire to take in a good epitome of continental news in the French language, cannot fare better than by subscribing to this convenient journal.

"The Nuremberg Correspondent," and "The Franconian Mercury," are daily papers of a somewhat liberal tendency. The former is published at Nuremberg, the latter at Bamberg.

"The Universal Augsburg Gazette," (*die allgemeine Augsburger-zeitung*, usually styled *Die Allgemeine Zeitung*,) edited by Dr. Gustavus Kolb, is the German paper which enjoys the widest European fame. It was established by the late bookseller

of Stuttgard and Tübingen, Baron Cotta of Cottendorf, and has generally been in the interest of the party which was dominant for the time being, sometimes leaning towards liberalism, and sometimes towards absolutism. At this moment, its tendency is in the latter direction. Its chief merit consists in the detailed and well-written correspondence which it presents from almost all the countries of Europe. Its correspondents are generally very well-informed, and are frequently persons filling situations under governments. The Austrian and Prussian governments are said to have the greatest share of influence on its character. I believe, however, that good articles are readily admitted into this journal, from whatever quarter they may proceed: but the censor will sometimes mutilate them.

"The German Courier," (*der Deutsche Courier,*) is a daily paper published at Stuttgard, and edited by Dr. Weil. This journal espouses the cause of the German constitutional states against the attacks of the writers who maintain Austrian and Prussian views. It has always warmly defended King Louis Philippe, and the revolution of 1830, in opposition to the organs of the absolute powers.

"The Suabian Mercury," (*der Schwäbische Merkur,*) is also a daily paper published at Stuttgard, and of a liberal cast. Its correspondence is sometimes valuable.

"The Austrian Observer," (*der Oestreichische Beobachter,*) is a daily paper published at Vienna. Its principal editor is Edler von Pilat. This journal is said to represent the sentiments of Prince Metternich, the truly remarkable prime minister of Austria, who during so many years has safely guided the imperial vessel through tempests and rocks, and who has received so large a portion of abuse in foreign countries, from persons who know but little about him*.

* It is to be regretted that the English Cabinet, of whatever party composed, does not always adopt some *one* journal, as a faithful and steady representative of its sentiments. In default of such a reflection of its own political character, the English ministries are perpetually *mistaken*, both as to their spirit, intentions, and actual proceedings, as well at home as in foreign countries. Irritation is excited against them, in consequence of certain articles which appear in journals *supposed* to be under their control, but which, in fact, *distort* them, and not unfrequently, even attack them.

An attempt has been made, to show the proportion of periodical works and of newspapers, in various parts of Europe. This list affords to

Austria, one journal among - - -	376,000	inhabitants.
Prussia - - - - - -	43,000	.....
Vienna - - - - - -	11,558	.....
Berlin - - - - - -	4,074	.....

The number of journals published in Austria in 1837, amounts to 72, 21 of which are furnished by Vienna. The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom issues 34; Milan alone, 25, Venice 6, and Verona 4.

Two English journals are at present published in Germany; "The Englishman," at Stuttgard, and "The British Museum," at Bielefeld. They are both devoted to entertaining literature alone.

We have not enumerated all the newspapers which are published in Germany; and probably, at the moment when we are making this brief statement new candidates are starting on their career. Still less will it be convenient to describe the numerous periodical miscellanies which emanate from that quarter in illustration of every branch of knowledge and art. We had intended to name the most distinguished,—but the difficulty of making an impartial selection, and of rendering justice to all, deters us from the attempt.

SECTION II.

GERMANY CONSIDERED IN ITS PARTS.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA.

The ruling Family. Provinces and Population; principal Towns; Races. Religion; number of Clergy; Monasteries in Bohemia; Universities. Budget; Army; Navy. Form of Government; Officers of Government; Officers of the Court. Births and Deaths; Statistics of the Population of Bohemia; number of Medical Men in an Austrian Province; Statistics of Vienna. Criminal Statistics of the Empire of Austria.

In the great panorama of Germany, the Austrian empire forms the most curious and picturesque object to every class of observers. There we find the greatest variety of dialects, of dresses, of usages,—but all blended into one powerful, if not harmonious mass, moving with regularity, and, if not rapidly advancing, making nevertheless a steady step onwards. There we observe inconsistencies, which the framers of systems will find it difficult to reconcile; but the true point of view from which Austria ought to be viewed, is the variety of its component parts, and the extreme difficulty of maintaining them together, except by a rigid and inflexible political system. Yet, severe as is the Austrian system towards real or supposed political offences, nowhere is a better provision made for the elementary instruction of the inhabitants, and nowhere perhaps is a greater degree of happiness enjoyed, than in the Germanic portion of the empire: it is only in the Italian dominions that the murmur of disaffection springs from the heart.

It is a mistake to suppose that every political feature in Austria continues unchanged. A slow and unobserved progress is at work, not announcing its march by outcry and violence, but gently and insensibly accommodating the condition of men and of things to the alterations in the proceedings in other parts of of the world, and to the wants of their own portion. Thus, in 1785 there existed in Bohemia, 6,257 ecclesiastics, 1,577 nobles, 3,077 officials, and 85,000 citizens*; and in 1795 we find a dawn of change, which, in the year 1805 continues, and perseveres through 1815, until in the year 1825 we perceive the last results, demonstrating a very singular transposition or dislocation in the various classes of society: the ecclesiastics are greatly diminished, the nobles are somewhat augmented, the official persons are nearly trebled in number, and the amount of those described as citizens is decreased†.

The imperial house of Austria is of the Catholic religion. The present emperor is Ferdinand I., born April 19, 1793, crowned king of Hungary, September 28, 1830, who succeeded his father, Francis I., March 2, 1835. He married, 1831, Caroline, princess of Sardinia. He has three sisters, Maria Louisa, duchess of Parma; Maria Clementina, married to the prince of Salerno; and Maria Anna, abbess at Prague; and one brother, Francis, born in 1802, married, 1824, to Sophia, princess of Bavaria, by whom he has three sons and one daughter. Francis, the eldest son, was born August 18, 1830. The mother-in-law of the emperor, Caroline, princess of Bavaria, born in 1792, is still living. The emperor has five uncles, viz., Charles, duke of Teschen; Joseph, palatine of Hungary; John, general of cavalry; Rainer, vice-king of Lombardy; and Lewis, general of artillery. Charles, who married a princess of Nassau-Weilburg. Joseph, who has been thrice married, first to Alexandrina Paulowna, a Russian grand-princess; secondly, to Her-

* In 1795, 4,790 ecclesiastics, 1,677 nobles, 3,202 officials, 81,751 citizens.
1805, 4,210 ..... 2,051 ..... 5,393 ..... 74,281 .....
1815, 4,142 ..... 2,053 ..... 9,350 ..... 72,338 .....
1825, 4,006 ..... 2,267 ..... 9,986 ..... 66,210 .....

† *Schön, Op. Cit.*, p. 231.

mine, princess of Anhalt-Bernburg-Schaumburg; and, thirdly, to Maria, daughter of Prince Lewis of Wurtemberg. Rainer, who married a princess of Savoy-Carignano. They have all several children.

The following is a view of the provinces of Austria, and of their population *.

PROVINCES.	Area in Geographical Sq. Miles.	Population.	Towns.	Market Towns and Villages.
Lower Austria	708.65	1,246,520	35	4,500
Upper Austria		835,431	17	6,925
Styria	400.12	855,720	20	3,643
Illyria	519.74	1,190,000	54	7,223
Tyrol and Vorarlberg	519.40	784,472	22	1,731
Bohemia	949.35	3,888,828	278	11,926
Moravia and Silesia	482.01	2,037,941	118	3,733
Hungary, Croatia..... Sclavonia and Boundaries ...	4,181.50	10,472,142	62	12,279
Transylvania	1,109.08	1,748,420	13	2,630
Galicia	1,548	4,380,508	95	6,141
Dalmatia	274	326,415	9	1,002
Küstenland (Const Land)	143	420,971	37	920
Militairgränze (Military Bound.)	609	1,016,322	12	1,720
Lombardy and Venice	852	4,278,905	56	11,434
Total	12,295.85	33,482,692	799	73,839

The proportion in which the inhabitants of Austria are distributed in the country and in towns, is nearly similar to the Prussian scale. In the country live $\frac{77}{100}$, and in the towns $\frac{23}{100}$. There are six villages to a square mile in Austria, but only one town to fifteen square miles †. The proportion of the agricultural classes to the manufacturing, is said to be as four to one. The proportion of paupers is one in 25 of the whole mass ‡.

Great pains have latterly been taken to improve the cultivation of the soil in Austria. About 81 parts in 100 of the cultivable portion have been brought into use. The arable land forms less than half of the available surface: the forests and woodlands, more than a third. The vineyards occupy about a fiftieth part,

* As given in the Genealogisch-Historisch-Statistischer Almanach of Weimar, for 1837.

† Schön, Gesch. und Statistik der Europ. Civilisation, p. 161.

‡ Untersuchungen über Bevölkerung, Arbeitslohn, und Pauperism, von F. Schmidt, p. 322. (Leipzig, 1836.)

and the meadow-land and grazing-land, each about an eleventh part of the whole cultivable surface. Malchus estimates the gross quantity of grain produced at about 82,070,000 quarters, of which about 17,820,000 being reserved for seed-corn, a surplus of 64,250,000 will remain for consumption or export.

The principal towns are, Vienna (319,873 inhabitants), Milan (130,399), Venice (113,000), Prague (102,462), Pest (56,577), Lemberg (55,500), Verona (55,000), Trieste (46,000), Debreczyn (45,375), Grätz (40,000), Pressburg (37,180), Brunn (36,000), Padua (35,000), Brescia (35,000), Theresienstadt (34,924), Szegedin (32,209), Bergamo (32,000), Ofen (30,011), Vicenza (30,000). Besides these, there are nine other towns containing more than 20,000 inhabitants.

The population is composed of 14,875,000 Sclavonians, 5,850,000 Germans, 4,400,000 Italians, 4,100,000 Magyars, 1,800,000 Wallachians, 470,000 Jews, 110,000 Gipsies, 13,500 Armenians, 4,000 Greeks, 1,500 Clementinians, 1,000 Osmans and French.

With respect to religion, 25,441,000 are Catholics, 2,900,000 members of the Greek church, 1,600,000 of the Reformed church, 1,150,000 Lutherans, 470,000 Jews, 50,000 Unitarians, 13,500 Armenians, 500 Mohammedans.

The Catholic clergy consists of three cardinals, 13 archbishops, and 70 bishops, and the cathedral chapters of 2568 clergymen. According to the official reports of 1828, there were 69,515 secular and other clergymen. The whole body of clergy comprises 72,169 individuals, the spiritual orders of knighthood, the professors of seminaries and colleges, and the students, not included.

There are 294 abbeys, 537 monasteries, and 110 nunneries.

There are 18 evangelical and one protestant superintendantship.

In Bohemia there are 79 monasteries, viz., 37 in the archdiocese of Prague, 20 in the diocese of Leutmeritz, 12 in the diocese of Königsgrätz, and 10 in the diocese of Budweis.

The university of Vienna numbers 1,954 students, of Prague 1,449, of Pavia 1,300, of Padua 410, of Pest 1,710, of Lemberg

1,010, of Innsbruck 352, of Grätz 321; there is also a university at Olmutz.

The revenue of Austria amounts to 130,000,000 florins. Its principal sources are as follows:—

	Florins.
Land-tax	42,000,000
Indirect taxes	32,000,000
Regalien*	36,000,000
Domains and Forests	8,000,000
Interest of Government Property†, &c.	12,000,000

The expenditure of the state, in time of peace, amounts to 125,000,000 florins annually. The public debt is 500,000,000 florins. In the beginning of 1834, there were in circulation 26,766,588 florins, paper money.

It would be unjust to pass over in silence some remarkable transactions relative to the finances of Austria, which we rather record in the words of a German, than in our own. Our authority is Schneller, who speaks thus in a passage of the third volume of his "History of Bohemia," translated and cited in a recent number of the "British and Foreign Review." We have omitted some of his comments.

"No sooner was Count Wallis called from the post of Oberst-burg-graf in Prague to that of finance-minister in Vienna, than he perceived that the financial measures of Counts Saurau, Zichy, and Odonell, from 1790 to 1811, had only caused a momentary relief, without any permanent amelioration. Voluntary contributions had been called for; the silver of the churches had been taken; a base currency, of half its nominal value, had been issued; the exportation of the metals had been prohibited; a compulsory loan of seventy-five millions of florins had been decreed, to diminish the quantity of bank notes; immense duties had been laid upon all colonial produce; the post money had been raised two or three times; a property-tax of one-half per cent. had been introduced for an indefinite period; the emperor had publicly

* *Jura Regalia.* Monies accruing from privileges connected with the sovereign power.

† *Prozentzuschläge.*

promised to stop any further issue of bank notes, but he was compelled again to have recourse to them:—nevertheless, all was in vain.

"The floating bank notes had imperceptibly risen to an amount of one thousand and sixty millions of florins (106,000,000*l.* sterling); the amount of the interest-paying debt was never exactly known, but it was doubtless even more considerable; the salaries of all public officers and the expenditure of the state had of course risen enormously in proportion to the depreciation of the currency; all these palpable evils were to be remedied at once by the bold project and the determined character of Count Wallis.

"The *coup d'état* which that minister carried into execution received the approbation of his majesty on the 11th of February, 1811; the important orders were printed with the greatest secresy in the imperial printing-office; a copy of the patent was sent, sealed, to all the governors of the empire, who were to open it at the same hour, on the 15th of March, 1811; these orders were instantly to be acted upon, without remonstrance, and without the assent of the states. In what did this master-stroke consist? In the substitution of quittances for bank notes, so that five florins of the latter were paid by one florin of the former, in all public as well as private transactions.

"The whole financial system throughout the empire was changed. In the following war of 1813 a fresh issue of two hundred and twelve millions in paper was made, besides *anticipationscheine* to three times that amount. When Count Stadion succeeded Count Wallis the paper money was so fallen, that he found it necessary to reduce it from two hundred and fifty to one hundred; the consequence was, that, in every part of the empire, the property of minors, hospitals, all institutions, and capitalists, was reduced from one hundred thousand to twenty thousand by Wallis, and from twenty to eight thousand by Stadion. The state was compelled to borrow, after the peace, first twenty millions and afterwards thirty-eight millions of Rothschild, and nearly as much again from other contractors."

Austria has also, we believe, made another very large loan, within the year succeeding the revolution of July.

		Men.
The Standing Army amounts to		271,404
And consists of	Men.	
Ninety-two regiments of Infantry	188,621	
Thirty-seven ditto of Cavalry	39,024	
Five ditto of Artillery	17,790	
Engineers	2,757	
Sundry denominations	23,212	
The Recruits and Militia amount to		479,000
Total		750,404

The number of higher officers, not including those in active service, is 239; of staff and other officers, about 10,000, of under-officers 31,200, of civil officers attached to the army 1590. The number of horses is 70,000.

The navy consists of three ships of the line (unrigged), eight frigates, one corvette, eight brigs, four schooners, and seven smaller vessels—altogether, thirty-one ships of war.

This is an hereditary but mixed monarchy, consisting of several inseparable provinces incorporated into one state, under the protection of a chief, who bears the title of emperor, and, with the original German provinces, forming part of the German confederacy. The emperor combines all the rights of government, with the exception of those which he shares with the Hungarian diet by virtue of capitulation-oaths. Every province of the imperial state, with the exception of the Military Boundaries, of Dalmatia, and of the Sea-coast, has its representatives, though with very unequal privileges. Only those of Hungary and Transylvania can take part in the legislature. The representatives of the other states have a much more limited sphere of action; they can only make representations, and regulate the distribution of taxes. There are no fundamental laws which obtain for the whole of this empire; but there are *Hausgesetze*, as the Pragmatic Sanction, &c., and every state or province has its particular charters of different kinds (*Charten und Handvesten*).

The chief officers of government are four state and cabinet ministers, of whom one is chancellor and minister of foreign affairs, and

two have seats in the council for home affairs, in which, also, are two archdukes, and several councillors. There is a director of the private cabinet of the emperor, and a president of the general chamber of accounts. In each of the provinces, there is a president of the government.

The chief officers of the imperial court are, a first-grand-master, a grand-chamberlain, a grand-marshal, a grand-equerry, a grand-master of the kitchens, a grand-keeper of the plate, a grand-master of the house, a grand-huntsman, an intendant-general of buildings, a director of the amusements of the court, a grand-master of the ceremonies.

The Austrian government is remarkably free from any taint of ostentation or vanity; it takes no pains to procure itself a good name, and appears quite a stranger to the arts of puffing and self-praise. Perhaps it might earn a more popular character if it condescended to practise such manœuvres, but it steers quietly and independently its course. Although generally reputed to be an enemy to publicity, in few countries are the statistical reports more ample; it shows no disfavour towards Protestantism, and has now established a Protestant college in its metropolis. Foreigners are not excluded from its service; several of our own countrymen are enrolled in its army, and strangers are admitted even to political employments. Above all we must render justice to the temperance, the humility, the affability, the mildness of its imperial family.

The attention which is here bestowed on the most minute details affecting the health and well-being of the subject is remarkable; I am far from saying that this ubiquitous interference is worthy of imitation in all respects, but some of its cares are laudable. The most abundant provision exists for the sick poor: no interment of a body can take place until it has been examined by the state-physician of the district. The sale of bad or spoiled food is checked; no poisonous article can be sold, even in the smallest dose, unless on the prescription of a licensed practitioner. It is even said that the musicians at the baths are ordered to play only cheerful tunes; but, whether such an injunction exists or

not, it is certain that nothing escapes the eye of the authorities, who are indulgent parents to the docile and submissive, but stern and unyielding to the restless and discontented.

From 1828 to 1833 inclusive, the average annual number of births in the Austrian dominions (Hungary not included) was 764,290; of marriages, 167,704; and of deaths, 688,763. The men generally marry between twenty-four and thirty; the women, between twenty and twenty-four. There is one marriage annually to 130 individuals. The number of female to male births is as 1,000 to 1,062. About every tenth child is illegitimate. The average number of children to a marriage is four and a half. The number of persons who die between forty and sixty is about the same as that of those who die between sixty and eighty. During six years, from 1829 to 1831 inclusive, 3375 persons have reached the age of 100, that is, 82 in every 100,000. The most healthy districts are Croatia, Carinthia and Styria—the least so, Lombardy and Venice. The mean duration of life is thirty-five and one-fifth years. Of the 645,767 deaths which occurred in 1834, 614,946 were from ordinary diseases, 11,882 from local diseases, 4414 from the small pox, 707 from suicide, and five were inflicted by the executioner.

In 1788, of every 207 individuals in the kingdom of Bohemia, 107 were females. In 1815, in consequence of the French wars, of 222, 122 were females. After the peace the usual proportion was re-established; accordingly, in 1827, we find that of 211, 111 were females.

The mean population of Bohemia, from 1784 to 1814 inclusive, was 3,023,420; in 1827, it was 3,736,840. During the former period, there were 3,788,362 births, 3,011,702 deaths, and 722,954 marriages. From 1815 to 1828 (14 years), there were 2,031,225 births, 1,404,045 deaths, and 383,416 marriages. From 1785 to 1815, every 1000 couples produced 5,240 children, and from 1815 to 1828, 5,296 children. In every eight births, one is illegitimate. The Bohemians are the most remarkable of all the Sclavonic people, for matrimonial fecundity. During the former of the above-mentioned periods, there were 125 births to every 100 deaths, during the second, 144. During both periods,

there was one birth annually to 23 inhabitants; and one death to 30 during the former period, and one to 34 during the second.

In 1800, there were 4312 ecclesiastics, 1741 nobles, (heads of families,) 3457 persons employed by government, 83,817 citizens, &c., and 125,527 peasants. In 1827, there were 4115 ecclesiastics, 2285 nobles, 10,088 persons employed by government, 69,942 citizens, &c., and 141,436 peasants. From 1806 to 1827 inclusive, 157,571 Bohemians entered into the military service, 89,661 left it, and 67,910 died, or remained in the ranks.

Of 3955 children born in Prague, in 1828, 1404 were illegitimate. The legitimate were 1291 boys, and 1260 girls; the illegitimate were 731 boys and 673 girls. Out of the above total number of births, the number of the still-born amounted to 107 boys and 97 girls. In the Foundling Hospital of Prague, 1125 children were born in the year 1827. The number of marriages in the same year was 661.

The total number of deaths was 4096. Of these, 1133 were of children under or not exceeding one year old:

836	were from	1	to	4	years old.
405	—	4	—	20	—
521	—	20	—	40	—
517	—	40	—	60	—
544	—	60	—	80	—
132	—	80	—	100	—

and 8 were above 100 years of age.

Among the above number of deaths, were six suicides, one murdered, two executed, 26 drowned, 4046 died of disease, and 15 were shot (but in what manner is not explained). Of the 4096 persons who died, 3773 were Catholics, 256 Jews, and only 67 were Protestants*.

To give an idea of the passage of travellers through Prague, the number of passports received at the police-office of that city,

* Strang's "Germany in 1831," vol. ii., p. 192.

in 1829, amounted to 51,333; of these passports, 16,074 belonged to foreign merchants and tourists, 17,059 to mechanics, and 18,200 to Jews*.

In order to point out the proportion which prevails of the medical profession to the population, we shall state that there is a province in Austria which contains 821,690 inhabitants. The number of medical men residing in this province is as follows: 48 physicians (or doctors of medicine and surgery); 349 surgeons of inferior grade (corresponding to our general practitioners); one veterinary surgeon; 38 pharmaceutists (or licensed druggists); and 666 licensed midwives.

The Austrian capital, Vienna, contains 6660 registered citizens, and 4970 licensed to trade on their own account. There are 173 bakers, 88 bookbinders, 112 twiners, 21 diamond cutters, 210 jewellers' workmen, 280 gardeners, 130 milliners, 1554 tailors, 1775 shoemakers, 565 silk-weavers, 915 carpenters, 200 watchmakers, and 920 weavers. There are 100 butchers, 450 milkmen, 915 dealers in provisions, 885 innkeepers, and 170 hosiers. About 100 manufactories have warehouses in Vienna, and 250 hawkers are licensed to sell in the town. Of the population, 153,368 are males, and 166,505 females. The rich and those in easy circumstances are 8000, the officials 5000, and the servants 30,000. There are 700 hackney coachmen, about 50 wine-cellars, more than 50 coffee-houses, and about 500 ale-houses. The number of horses is 10,000, of dogs 20,000, so that there is one dog to about fifteen inhabitants. In 1830, 385,848 casks of beer were consumed, 23,686 cwt. of butter and lard, 46,006,370 eggs, 11,899 cwt. of fish, 621,000 birds (game), 1,087,188 other birds, 258,445 pails of milk, 708,000 head of cattle, and 348,930 barrels of wine and must.

Vienna is one of the most orderly and agreeable cities in the world; intoxication or rudeness are rare; pauperism is kept out of sight. The secret police cannot be reduced to calculation, but the police employed to patrol the city and suburbs amount to about 700. In no city probably are strangers treated with greater

* Strang's "Germany," vol. ii., p. 224.

civility; if I were to speak my own impression, Vienna stands first in this respect, and Copenhagen the second.

Important commercial advantages, and unforeseen political results, will, doubtless, accrue as well to Vienna, as to the whole empire of Austria, from the Steam Navigation recently introduced on the Danube. Two English ship-builders, Andrews and Prichard, in 1828, obtained an exclusive privilege for three years, for carrying this scheme into effect. A Company has since been formed to prosecute further this great object; one of the most zealous promoters has been the patriotic Count Szecheny; it enjoys a charter for twenty-five years. There are nine steam-boats, now forming a chain of communication between Vienna and Constantinople*.

It is admitted that, of all the states of Germany, Austria is the one in which justice is most cheaply administered; the fees of the advocates and other members of the legal profession are fixed by decree. The local authorities are enjoined to attempt to effect an agreement in all civil disputes.

At the first opening of the Continent, it was the universal fashion to level every sort of opprobrium on the severity of the Austrian police, and on the supposed exclusion of all publications of a free tendency. Nevertheless, at the very moment when such statements were common, I found in the Merchants' Reading Room at Vienna, in the year 1823, the *Morning Chronicle*, the *Constitutionnel*, and the *Edinburgh Review*. No visitor nor native can complain that his personal amusements or his studies are impeded, and nowhere is a better provision made for the security of property and of person. Every one understands, that the measures of the government are not to be attacked; but, with this exception, and that of the unnecessary rigour of passports, there is no country in which a well-disposed individual is so little annoyed. I am no defender of the spirit of the government, but, in order to criticise it with justice, the observer ought to stand behind the scenes.

The average income of every Austrian, afforded by a rude

* For ample particulars respecting the Steam Navigation of the Danube, consult the "Handbook for Travellers in Southern Germany," p. 353.

division of revenues among the whole population, has been estimated at 182 francs, or about seven guineas, yearly. To show the proportion which has thus been endeavoured to be formed between the yearly income of the European population*,

	Francs
The Englishman has been rated to enjoy - - -	486 yearly
Netherlander - - - - - - -	214 ...
Frenchman - - - - - - - -	201 ...
Austrian - - - - - - - -	182 ...
Prussian - - - - - - - - -	141 ...

And, allowing three individuals on an average to each family, this would make the annual income of

	Francs
An English Family - - - - - - -	1,458 yearly
Netherlandish - - - - - - - -	642 ...
French - - - - - - - - -	605 ...
Austrian - - - - - - - - -	546 ...
Prussian - - - - - - - - -	425 ...

The following was the proportion of the number of every kind of indictments for offences to the population, during the five years of 1824, 1825, 1826, 1827, and 1828, in seven provinces of Austria.

Provinces.	Population.	Indictments to Inhabitants.
Moravia and Silesia -	German and Sclavonian - - -	1 to 1707
Austria Proper - -	German - - - - - -	1 to 1676
Bohemia - - - -	Sclavonian and German - -	1 to 1428
Galicia - - - - -	Polish - - - - - -	1 to 1382
Interior Austria - -	German, Sclavonian and Italian -	1 to 609
Tyrol and Vorarlberg	German and Italian - - -	1 to 322
Dalmatia - - - -	Sclavonian - - - - - -	1 to 138

* See Schön, who very properly points out that such a table, however correct it may be in itself, does not afford a very clear indication of the actual income of any class of the community. Thus, in France, it was ascertained, some years ago, that the average daily income of each inhabitant was fifty-four centimes (about five-pence halfpenny), but the positive income of above six millions of inhabitants in fact exceeded that sum, while a large majority, in fact, received less than that sum daily; that is, in round numbers, seven millions could spend forty centimes daily, seven millions only thirty-three, and seven other millions only twenty-five centimes.

The proportion of children visiting the schools, among one thousand able to attend, was, in the same provinces, in the years 1824, 1825, and 1828, the following:

Provinces.	From 1,000 Children, went to School.
Austria Proper	948
Tyrol and Vorarlberg	945
Moravia and Silesia	919
Bohemia	906
Dalmatia	649
Interior Austria	443
Galicia	115

In comparing these two tables, I find the increase of crime with a decrease of education nearly agreeing in Austria-Proper, in Moravia, Silesia, Bohemia, in Interior Austria, and even in Dalmatia, where the numbers are too small to furnish a fair and accurate judgment. But on the reverse, the Tyrolese, one of the noblest and bravest races of the world, sending nineteen-twentieths of their children to school, give more occupation to Austrian judges, than all the other provinces of the empire, except Dalmatia, the common asylum of fugitives from lawless Turkey; and Galicia, whose Polish inhabitants, shunning, like their brethren in Prussia, popular instruction, send only the ninth part of their children to school, and furnish, at the same time, far fewer criminals than Interior Austria, Tyrol, or Dalmatia. The great amount of crime in Tyrol, may be, perhaps, accounted for, by the character of the Tyrolese, who, like most mountaineers, prefer, in their spirit of independence, to revenge a wrong, rather than to go to law; and by the circumstance, that a very great number of the male population of Tyrol annually travel into foreign countries as pedlars, with goods manufactured at home*.

* See observations by Dr. Julius in Francis Lieber on the Relation between Education and Crime, p. 17. (Philadelphia, 1835).

CHAPTER XX.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA.

Nationality. The Royal Family. Provinces and Population. Births and Deaths. Principal Towns. Races. Religion; Number of Clergy. Universities and other Educational Institutions. Budget; Paper Money in Circulation. Army; Pay of the Army. Form of Government; Provincial Diets; Officers of Government, and their Salaries; List of Questions respecting the character and qualifications of Candidates for Office in Prussia; Officers of the Court. Statistics of Berlin. Statistics of the Government-District of Potsdam. Statistics of Education. System of Police respecting Public Women, Houses of Ill Fame, and the like. Criminal Statistics of the Seven Provinces of Old Prussia, during Three Years; Number of Arrests at Berlin; Juvenile Delinquents. Courts of Law. On the Military tendency of Prussia.

Prussia is remarkable for its long sufferings and mortifications during the late wars, and not less so for the energy with which her natives finally rallied. In her bosom she still retains several deep-seated and corroding cares, some of which are not likely to be diminished by time. But the Prussians have the wisdom and the virtue not to amuse the world with their internal sorrows; one of the best traits in the Prussian character is Nationality, a quality indispensable to greatness, however much it may be sneered at by cosmopolites of our own days, who love that nation the best in which they can procure the best dinner at the least cost; the Prussians are not the people to depreciate the merit of their great generals, nor to unveil the nakedness of their land to the malignant eye of the stranger. In this respect, they offer a strong contrast to certain writers and orators of our country, whose favourite theme appears to be the crimes, the errors, and the feebleness of England. Prussia stands in rather a critical position with regard to the future, but her sons do not boast of a mother's weakness. The resources of the nation are scarcely equal

to the rank which it seeks to maintain among the powers of Europe; and in spite of industry, and ingenuity, and perseverance, the *res angusta domi* will probably long remain the most dangerous of its enemies.

The royal house of Prussia is of the Protestant religion. The present king is Frederic William III., born August 3, 1770, who succeeded his father, November 16, 1797. He married, first, in 1793, Louisa, princess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, who died 1810, and, secondly, in morganatic marriage, 1824, Augusta, daughter of Count Ferdinand von Harrach, who bears the title of princess of Liegnitz. By his first wife, he has four sons and three daughters; viz., Frederic William, the heir apparent, born 1795, married, 1823, to Elizabeth, princess of Bavaria; William, married to Augusta, princess of Saxe-Weimar, by whom he has a son, Frederic William, born 1831; Charles, married to Maria, princess of Saxe-Weimar, by whom he has one son and two daughters; Albert, married to Marianne, princess of the Netherlands. The daughters are, Charlotte, born 1798, married to the emperor of Russia; Alexandrina, married to the grand duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin; and Louisa, married to Prince Frederic of the Netherlands.

The king had three sisters, of whom two, Wilhelmina, queen of the Netherlands, and the duchess of York (his half-sister), are deceased, and Augusta, married to the elector of Hesse; and two brothers, Henry, general of infantry, and William, governor of the fortress of Mainz, married to Marianne, princess of Hesse-Homburg, by whom he has two sons and one daughter.

The number of nobles was rated by Hassel, in 1822, at 200,000. But the number of noble families in Prussia, has been lately estimated (by the Berlin correspondent of the *Morning Chronicle*) at 20,000. I cannot at all vouch for the correctness of this last calculation.

The following is a view of the provinces and of their population:—

	Area in Geographical Square Miles.	Population.
I. BRANDENBURG	730.94 ...	1,579,939
Districts.		
1. Potsdam and Berlin	373.69 ...	896,761
2. Frankfort on the Oder	357.25 ...	683,188
II. POMERANIA	567.10 ...	912,223
1. Stettin	233.13 ...	432,570
2. Coslin	258.49 ...	329,298
3. Stralsund	75.48 ...	150,355
III. SILESIA	741.74 ...	2,464,414
1. Breslau	248.14 ...	960,881
2. Oppeln	243.06 ...	730,044
3. Liegnitz	250.54 ...	773,489
IV. SAXONY	460.63 ...	1,449,587
1. Magdeburg	210.18 ...	562,932
2. Merseburg	188.76 ...	604,305
3. Erfurt	61.74 ...	282,352
V. WESTPHALIA	367.60 ...	1,261,996
1. Munster	132.22 ...	399,896
2. Minden	94.05 ...	396,325
3. Arensburg	140.53 ...	465,775
VI. RHINE-PRUSSIA	491.27 ...	2,253,687
1. Cologne	73.08 ...	399,806
2. Dusseldorf	100.29 ...	706,803
3. Coblenz	109.54 ...	436,828
4. Treves	121.54 ...	390,415
5. Aix-la-Chapelle	75.54 ...	354,742
VII. PRUSSIA	1,170.03 ...	1,989,608
1. Königsberg	408.12 ...	716,456
2. Gumbinnen	298.21 ...	527,115
3. Dantzic	152.28 ...	326,549
4. Marienwerder	319.41 ...	455,807
VIII. POSEN	536.51 ...	1,056,278
1. Posen	321.63 ...	730,047
2. Bromberg	214.90 ...	326,231
Total	5,073.94 ...	13,068,960
Neufchatel	13.22 ...	56,073
Total	5,087.04 ...	13,125,033

To show how large a proportion of the inhabitants live in the country, Schön states that $\frac{73}{100}$ belong to this class, while only $\frac{27}{100}$ are domiciled in towns. There are only three villages to a square mile, which is a small number compared with Austria and with England; but then, there is one town in six square miles, which is more than double the proportion of Austria.

The proportion of the agricultural population to the manufacturing, is about five to one. About one in 30 of the whole population is said to be in the state of pauperism*.

In the province of Prussian Saxony, in 1835, there were 58,165 births, 29,903 of males, 28,262 of females; 36,611 deaths, 19,773 of males, 18,878 of females; and 13,658 marriages.

In the province of Pomerania, there were, in the district of Stettin, 16,546 births, 11,299 deaths, and 3975 marriages.

In the district of Coslin, there were 14,033 births, 8847 deaths, and 3181 marriages.

In the district of Dantzic, there were 13,444 births, and 10,306 deaths; 6993 were male, and 6451 female births.

In the district of Marienwerder, there were 21,421 births, and 14,027 deaths; of the births, 11,078 were male, and 10,343 female.

In the district of Gumbinnen, there were 21,362 births, 19,267 deaths, and 4192 marriages.

In the district of Posen, there were 29,954 births, 15,330 male, and 14,624 female; 20,930 deaths; and 6971 marriages.

According to the latest rates (*Cataster-aufnahmen*), the eight government districts of the Rhine, Prussia, and Westphalia contain 18,128,208 acres (*morgen*) of land, 536,015 dwelling-houses, and 3,452,242 inhabitants.

The following are the principal towns of Prussia, and their population, according to the census of 1831: Berlin (252,000 inhabitants), Breslau (86,052), Königsberg (62,375), Cologne (61,098), Dantzic (54,660), Magdeburg (39,806), Aix-la-Chapelle (37,669), Elberfeld (32,074), Stettin (30,575), Posen (26,738), Halle (24,790), Barmen (24,288), Potsdam (23,758), Erfurt (22,759).

* Untersuchungen über Bevölkerung, Arbeitslohn, und Pauperism, von Dr. Friedrich Schmidt, p. 325 (Leipzig, 1836).

On the whole, there are in Prussia, 985 towns, 281 market-towns, and 34,451 villages and hamlets. In 1828, there were 16,919 churches and chapels, 91,436 mills, manufactories, and private magazines, and 1,600,531 stables, barns, and hovels; altogether, 3,434,606 buildings.

Of the inhabitants, 10,350,000 are Germans, 2,078,000 Sclavonians, 90,000 French, and 167,330 Jews. With respect to religion, 7,941,721 are Protestants, 4,915,153 Catholics, 14,756 Mennonites, and 167,330 Jews. The Protestants have one church to 1009 inhabitants; the Roman Catholics have one to 1051; and the Jews have one synagogue to 211 of their race. The Catholic clergy consists of 2 archbishops, 2 episcopal princes, 3 bishops, 8 suffragans, 25 prelates, and 99 canons. The number of secular priests, is 3500; that of vicars, chaplains, &c., 1900. There are about 2000 monks, and 1000 nuns. Altogether, there are 8537 clergymen*. The Protestant clergy consists of 4 bishops, 369 superintendants, and 5720 parish priests. The proportion of Protestant students of theology to the Roman Catholics, is said to be as three to one.

At the University of Berlin in 1834–5, were		1,800	students.
Ditto of Halle - - -	1833	888	.....
Ditto of Breslau - - -	1836	758	.....
Ditto of Bonn - - -	1836	686	.....
Ditto of Königsberg - -	1834–5.....	437	.....
Ditto of Greifswalde - -	1829	154	.....
Ditto of Munster - -	1829	361	.....

Seventeen Englishmen studied in these universities in 1836.

* The harmony which exists between the Protestants and the Roman Catholics in Prussia, is often contrasted with the unhappy discord which prevails in Ireland. There are two causes, each of which is alone almost sufficient to explain the causes of this different face of things:—in Prussia, the Romish clergy, from the highest to the lowest, are more or less dependant on the crown; and the Romish priest or bishop who should in Prussia exert himself to divert the minds of the people into a particular political channel, would soon feel the iron hand of the government. All is consequently smooth on the surface, although the under-current is not equally tranquil. The other cause is, a numerous, powerful, everywhere-present, constantly-corresponding gendarmerie,—who alike prevent outrage, and unfailingly and unflinchingly seize its promoters. A system of tumult, or a combination to procure any end by violent means, is hopeless. Whenever the Romish clergy in Ireland is salaried by the government, and a judicious Poor Law is established, the terrorism, agitation, and discord will sink from the boiling-point to Zero.

There are ten seminaries for schoolmasters in the province of Prussia, five in Brandenburg, four in Pomerania, five in Silesia, five in Posen, six in Saxony, four in Westphalia, and four in Rhine-Prussia; altogether forty-four.

The following is a view of the state of Finance in Prussia, in 1835:—

REVENUE.

	Dollars.	Dollars.
Net Produce of the Domains and Forests		4,212,000
Sale, &c. of Domains		1,000,000
Produce of the Mines, Salt Works, and Porcelain Manufactory at Berlin		717,000
From the Post-office		1,200,000
From Lotteries		669,000
From Taxes and Duties:—		
a. Land-tax	9,735,000	
b. Income-tax*	6,404,000	
c. Trade-tax †	1,973,000	
d. Duties on goods imported, exported, and passing through the country; on the consumption of home products; tolls of roads, havens, canals, flood-gates, &c.; duties on shipping and stamps	20,052,000	
e. Revenue from the Salt-regie	5,366,000	
		43,530,000
Surplus Revenue of the principality of Lichtenberg		80,000
From sources not included in the above		332,000
Total Revenue		51,740,000

EXPENDITURE.

	Dollars.	Dollars.
Interest of the general and provincial Debt, and expenses of its administration	6,397,000	
Paid off the Debt	2,480,000	
Interest and paying off the new provincial Debts	41,000	
		8,918,000
Pensions, Life Annuities, and Gratuities		2,550,000
Capitals and Sureties withdrawn, and Indemnities for abolished rights and privileges		963,000

* The income-tax only affects the officers of government, who are taxed according to their salary.

† This is a tax on the calling of a tradesman, and is different for every trade.

	Dollars.
For the Private Cabinet, the Office of the Ministry of State, State-book-keeping, administration of the Exchequer, and of the Mint, State and Provincial Archives, the Secretariate of State, the Supreme Chamber of Accounts, the General Commission of Orders, and the Statistical Office -	308,000
For the Department of Religious Instruction and Medical Affairs - - - - - - - -	2,683,000
For the Department of the Ministry of the Interior, and of the Police - - - - - - - -	2,184,000
To the Minister of the Interior, for trades, and general commissions - - - - - - -	173,000
For the Department of Trade and Manufacture, for buildings and water-works - - - - -	1,369,000
For the Roads, and Road-debts - - - - -	2,852,000
For the Ministry of Foreign Affairs - - - -	681,000
For the Ministry of War, and Military Orphan-Houses -	23,462,000
For the Administration of Finance - - -	159,000
For the Administration of the Domains and Forests -	94,000
For the Ministry of Justice - - - - - -	2,061,000
For the High Presidents and Provincial Governments -	1,766,000
For the Studs - - - - - - -	167,000
For covering Deficiencies, for Extraordinary Expenses, and for Public Improvements - - - - - -	1,350,000
Total Expenditure - - -	51,740,000

On January 1, 1833 according to an official report, the public debt of Prussia amounted to 175,868,830 dollars, 10 groschen, and 6 pfennigs.

There are now in circulation, 17,242,347 dollars in paper money. There are 99,244 fifty-dollar notes, 995,502 five-dollar, and 7,302,637 one-dollar notes.

The following is the composition of the Army:—

	Men.	Men.
Standing Army - - - - - - -		159,090
Which is thus divided:—		
The Guard - - - - - -	17,908	
Infantry of the Line - - - -	104,712	
Cavalry - - - - - - -	19,132	
Artillery - - - - - - -	15,718	
Gendarmerie, Chasseurs - - - -	1,720	
(There are about 122,000 men in actual service.)		

	Men.
Standing Army	159,090
Reserve, or Militia answering to the first summons (*Landwehr ersten Aufgebots*)	230,000
Reserve, or Militia answering to the second summons (*zweiten Aufgebots*)	180,000
Total	569,090

The corps of officers consisted, in 1829, of 1 field-marshal, 3 generals of cavalry, 7 generals of infantry, 33 general lieutenants, 65 general majors, 128 colonels, 95 colonel lieutenants, 554 majors, 1,614 captains of horse and foot, 1,534 first lieutenants, and 5,037 second lieutenants.

The following table shows the regular yearly *pay* of the army (exclusive of rations and service-money).

	Dollars.
General of Infantry	12,000
General of Cavalry	12,000
Chief of the General Staff	12,000
Intendant	1,800
Councillor of the Intendancy	1,200
Assessor of ditto	700
Corps-auditor	800
General Staff Surgeon	2,000 to 3,000
Chief Staff Surgeon	1,200 to 1,500
Surgeon to a regiment	1,000
Ditto to a battalion	500
Ditto to a company	120
Lieutenant-general	5,416
Major-general	4,416
Colonel	2,908
Lieutenant-colonel	2,908
Major	1,800 to 1,900
Captain of Cavalry	1,300
Captain (1st class)	1,200
Captain (2d class)	600
First Lieutenant	360
Second ditto	204
Sergeant of Horse (*Wachmeister*)	120
Sergeant	102
Chief Fire-worker	132

	Dollars.
Fire-worker	78
Bombardier	48
Corporal	60
Private in the Guards	36
Private	30

Including rations and service-money, the privates have yearly 100 dollars pay, the corporals and drummers 150, the sergeants from 200 to 250, the lieutenants from 300 to 600, and the captains from 800 to 1,700.

After a service of a certain number of years, the retiring-officer and soldier are entitled to a pension, unless some civil office has been conferred upon them. It is, or has been, a prevailing principle of the Prussian government, to instal the veteran in some vacant civil appointment. If the value of such an appointment is less than the amount of the pension due, the deficiency is supplied to him. A lieutenant-colonel, and a major, after a service of twenty-five years, receive a pension of about 113*l.* per annum, a first captain obtains about 85*l.* annually. The widows of officers also acquire a title to a pension.

Every Prussian must be a soldier during a certain part of his existence. From the twenty-sixth to the thirty-second year of his age, every individual forms a part of the first division of the *Landwehr* (or militia); from the thirty-second to the fortieth year of his age, he is ranged in the second division; from forty to fifty he belongs to the *Landsturm* (or army of emergency, or levy in mass). The expenses of the army absorb in Prussia nearly one-half of the revenue.

The government of Prussia is a monarchy, limited in a very slight degree; there is no chamber of representatives for the whole kingdom; but in all the provinces, chambers have either been re-established or newly-constituted, which in general have a deliberative voice, and a share in the distribution of taxes. But the monarch has all the rights of government in his hand; he is the source of the laws, and he sets in motion the whole machine of the state, of which his capital is the centre. The monarchy is hereditary; there is no general fundamental law, though there

are provincial laws, and laws of the royal house (*Hausgesetze*). The monarchy, or at least the greater part of it, is included in the German confederacy.

The provincial assemblies of the kingdom of Prussia, (each province having its own assembly,) are thus composed:—

	Nobles.	Equest. Order.	Deputies of Towns.	Dep. of Country.	Total Members.	Population, 1828.
Brandenburg	0	35	22	12	69	1,539,602
Pomerania	0	25	16	8	49	877,555
Silesia	6	36	18	14	84	2,396,551
Prussia	0	45	28	22	95	2,008,361
Saxony	6	29	24	13	72	1,409,382
Rhenish Provinces	4	25	25	25	79	2,202,322
Westphalia	11	20	20	20	71	1,228,544
Posen	0	24	16	8	48	1,064,506
	27	239	179	122	567	12,726,823

Inasmuch as the first two classes, constituting the aristocracy of the chambers, comprise 266 votes, and the last two, constituting their democratical branch, possess 301 votes, there would appear to be a trifling preponderance in favour of the latter, but this is more than counterbalanced by two important considerations. In the first place, the exclusive right of presiding over the assemblies of the state, as well as in its committees, and over the commissions which it may appoint, is vested in the equestrian order; and in the second, this order being composed of ground landlords, the independence of the country-representatives is, in almost every instance, not only merely neutralized, but a perfect dead letter. Adding, therefore, to the 266 votes, the 122 from those representatives, we have a total of 388, which exceeds the majority of two-thirds of the votes required to pass any legislative measure.

It is also deserving of remark, that even in those provinces where the towns possess the greatest number of representatives, that number, in no case, exceeds one-third of the whole aggregate of votes; so that the agricultural interest is certain to predominate on every occasion, excepting where so unnatural a state of things shall exist as a want of harmony in its three constituent parts. These assemblies exercise a control over, and immediately parti-

cipate in, the civil affairs of their respective provinces. Property is the exclusive basis of representation. They were first called into existence by the royal rescript of 1823, which gave them the power of advising and deliberating in all legislative matters, having reference to the rights of persons, property, and to fiscal arrangements. The immediate object of their institution is universally considered to be the preparation of minds and habits for a national legislature. Such a course, indeed, is accordant with the policy of the sovereign to whose hands the sceptre is committed; for it ought not to be forgotten that he paved the way for these very assemblies themselves, first, by restoring personal liberty under the rescript of October, 1807, which abolished hereditary servitude; next, by placing the administration of all communal properties under the superintendance of the districts themselves in 1808; and, in the last place, by extending the abolition of feudal servitude in 1819 to the acquisitions made by the crown of Prussia in Lusatia and Saxony, and to the other districts where it still remained in force.

The chief officers of government are, a minister of foreign affairs, of finance, of religious instruction and medical affairs, of the royal-house and of court-affairs, of the interior for trade, of the interior for police, two ministers of justice, a minister of war, and a general-post-master. There is a state-council, composed of fifty-three members, which is divided into six departments. In the different provinces, there are presidents of the respective governments.

The names of the inferior Prussian officials will be found in the following Table, which shows the pay of all the functionaries:

A. MINISTERIAL FUNCTIONARIES.

Ministers of State have - - - - - - -			12,000	dollars annually.
Privy-Councillors with the title, Excellency -			8,000	.....
Directors - - - - - -	4,000	to	5,000	.....
Councillors - - - - -	2,000	...	2,800	.....
Assessors - - - - - - -			800	.....
Secretaries - - - - -	1,000	...	1,500	.....
Directors of the Board of Financial Control -	1,800	...	2,000	.....
Members of that Board - - -	600	...	1,600	.....
Masters of the Records - - -	1,200	...	1,500	.....

Registrars	600	to	1,200	dollars annually.
Journalists	800	...	1,400	.....
Directory of the Chancery of Clerks	1,200	...	1,400	.....
Clerks	400	...	800	.....
Chief Clerk of the Cash	1,500	...	2,000	.....
Cashier	1,000	...	1,600	.....
Comptroller of the Cash	800	...	1,200	.....
Book-keeper	600	...	1,000	.....
Clerks of the Cash, and their assistants	300	...	500	.....
Servants of the same department	300	...	400	.....
Servants of the Chancery	200	...	350	.....
Masters of Messengers (of whom some still exist)			500	.....
Porters			400	.....

B. PROVINCIAL FUNCTIONARIES.

The High President has			6,000	dollars annually.
President	2,500	to	3,500	.....
Directors	1,600	...	2,000	.....
Councillors	800	...	1,600	.....
Assessors	500	...	600	.....
Secretaries, first class	1,000			.....
Secretaries, second do.	400	...	600	.....
Registrars	400	...	1,000	.....
Members of the Financial Board of Control	400	...	1,200	.....
Chief of the Clerks	800			.....
Clerks	200	...	600	.....
Messengers	100	...	150	.....
Chief Clerk of the Cash	1,500			.....
Comptrollers	400	...	600	.....
Cashier	600	...	800	.....
Book-keeper	400	...	700	.....
Clerk of the Cash	200	...	300	.....
President of the Supreme Court of Justice	4,000			.....
Councillors of the same	1,000	...	1,800	.....
Assessors of the same	500	...	800	.....
Secretaries of the same	600	...	1,000	.....
Registrars of the same	400	...	800	.....
Clerks of Salaries and Deposits of the same	400	...	1,000	.....
Members of the Board of Control of the same	600	...	1,000	.....
Clerks of the same	250	...	600	.....
Under-Sheriffs (*Land-räthe*)	600	...	800	.....

In the selection and recompense of its servants, the Prussian government is particularly prudent. As before stated, a university education is necessary for all candidates for the higher

posts; rank is not at all preferred; the salaries are moderate; and instead of giving pensions to superannuated officials, it obliges the successor to pay out of his salary a fixed portion to the former incumbent during his lifetime.

The following is a list of the questions, or substance of questions, which must be answered to the satisfaction of the ministry, before any individual can be received into the Prussian service.

I. *Description of the Individual.*—1. Name. 2. Office, or employment. 3. Place of abode.

II. *Particulars of birth, &c.*—1. The day of his birth. 2. Where born. 3. Condition of his parents. 4. Mother-tongue.

III. *Education.*—1. What school was he educated at? 2. Has he been educated anywhere besides at school? 3. To what trade or profession was he originally brought up? 4. His occupation previously to entering the civil or military service.

IV. *Former Public Service, Military or Civil.*—1. Has he completed his military duties, and if not, why? 2. In what branch of military service has he been engaged? 3. His previous civil occupation, with the date of his entering on, and quitting, it. 4. In what civil service has he been hitherto actually employed? 5. His oath on first entering the public service. 6. Where is the attestation? 7. What is its date? 8. Does he possess orders, badges, or other distinctions?

V. *Particulars respecting his present Service and Condition.*—1. Is he active? 2. Does he discharge the duties of his own office? 3. By what title has his appointment been obtained? 4. Is he employed permanently, provisionally, on trial, or does he hold a commission? 5. Salary and emoluments, and from what funds? 6. Does he from private business derive any additional income? and if so, to what amount? 7. What is his rank in the *Landwehr*, if he is still in it?

VI. *Particulars respecting Property.*—1. Does he derive his income from his own resources, or from those of a member of his family? does he receive private assistance? 2. Has he landed property, and what? 3. How much security can he provide for his office? 4. How much security is he himself capable of providing? By his own means? By guarantee? 5. How much of the security has he been excused from paying? 6. Has he debts, and how many specifically? 7. Does he contribute to the fund for the relief of widows, and if so, to what amount?

VII. *Particulars respecting Family.*—1. Is he married, single, a

widower, or divorced? 2. His wife's father. 3. Number of his children: *a.* provided for; *b.* unprovided for, under nine years of age; *c.* adopted, or step-children. 4. Relations besides wife and children, whom he maintains or assists. 5. To what tradespeople is he related, to the third degree?

VIII. *Mode of Life.*—1. Have he or his wife any wants above their station, and what are they? 2. What recreations or amusements is he partial to? 3. How much rent does he pay? for how many rooms, with stoves in them? 4. Number of servants, and amount of their wages. 5. How many horses does he keep?

IX. *Physical Constitution.*—1. General state of health. 2. Habitual complaints. 3. Inconvenient wounds. 4. Bodily strength, and patience in enduring fatigue. 5. Quickness of sight and hearing.

X. *Character.*—1. Is he honest, honourable, persevering, economical, discreet, courageous, disinterested, veracious, regular, polite, temperate, diligent, sociable, friendly, obedient? prone to debauchery, chicanery, or frivolous intrigue? is he passionate, or timid and retiring? is he inclined to gambling, dissipation, and turmoil? is he inconsiderate, vindictive, or servile?

XI. *Knowledge of the World.*—1. Is he courteous to the tax-paying community? 2. Does he know how to keep on a friendly footing with other departments? 3. Does he know how to make his inferiors perform their duties cheerfully?

XII. *Abilities.*—1. Natural abilities and discernment. 2. Quick perception. 3. Quick decision. 4. Calm execution. 5. Good memory.

XIII. *Accomplishments.*—1. What foreign languages does he speak? 2. How does he speak German? 3. Does he write German orthographically, and grammatically? 4. Is his hand-writing good and legible? 5. What accounts is he conversant with? 6. Has he studied mathematics? 7. Does he understand chemistry? 8. What other sciences is he conversant with? 9. Can he draw? ride? does he understand how to use fire-arms? 10. Does he possess a good exterior, and are his address and manners prepossessing?

XIV. *Results of his Official Management.*—1. Have the receipts under his management generally increased or diminished? 2. Has he been commended during the past year? 3. Has he been reprimanded? 4. Has he been punished? and if so, for what?

XV. *Recommendations.*—1. Does he deserve unconditional employment or promotion? 2. For what offices is he qualified, and for what in particular? 3. Is a removal expedient? 4. Has he received any

promises as to a change in the days of his official duties? 5. Is it advisable to pension him? 6. What reasonable and proper wishes has he?

The grand officers of court are, a grand chamberlain, a grand master of the ceremonies, a grand marshal and intendant of the royal gardens, a grand equerry, a general intendant of museums and exhibitions, a grand huntsman, a general intendant of the theatres, a grand cup-bearer, a captain of the palace, a chief huntsman of the court, and a marshal of the court.

The Prussian government, with the best motives, has distributed the common lands of many villages; up to the year 1819, it had distributed the common lands of 1328, and had thus created 12,058 new proprietors. There is an evil, which is, however, constantly on the increase; this is, the extent of mortgages and debts among the proprietors of lands and houses; whose enterprise and industry are thus heavily shackled. In 1827, the Prussian tribunals are said to have taken cognizance of no less than 17,547 processes of *Foreclosure**.

It is even said, that in West Prussia, out of 262 large properties, only 67 are free from debts, and that 71 are sequestrated. The great subdivision of lands, and the abolition of restrictions as to the practice of trades, and as to the right of settlement in a place, have induced a disproportion between the population and the resources of industry.

In the year 1833, 9341 children were born in the city of Berlin, 4738 boys, and 4603 girls. There were 7940 deaths. Of illegitimate births, there were 736 male, and 755 female, of whom, however, 733 died shortly after their birth. There were 103 twin-births, and 2032 marriages. 376 persons died between 70 and 80, 396 between 80 and 90, and 21 above 90. The deaths were most frequent in the months of April, May, and June. In the Charité Hospital, Dec. 31st, 1832, there were 728 patients, and 5969 more were admitted in the course of the succeeding year, altogether 6697; of these, 4903 were dismissed cured, and 116 as incurable, 7 ran away, and 916 died; altogether, 5942. Consequently, Dec. 31, 1833, 705 persons remained under treatment,

* Subhastations-processe.

viz. 351 men, 338 women, and 16 children. In 1833, 62,412 strangers entered, and 61,210 left Berlin; of the former, 6012, of the latter 5094, were foreigners. To the *Stadt Voigtei* prison were brought, on the whole, 9900 persons, viz. 7470 males, and 2430 females; 1373 were committed and sent to the respective criminal courts*. There were 3048 thefts, the perpetrators of only 1008 of which were detected. There were 84 fires in the town and neighbourhood, of which 6 were considerable. The number of suicides was 7 more than the average, viz., 63, of which 11 were committed by women. 94 persons were killed by accidents of various kinds. 10,139 wispels (a wispel is four bushels) of wheat, 3910 of rye, 5990 of barley, 8955 of oats, entered the town *by land;* 11,332 of wheat, 11,611 of rye, 2324 of barley, and 9157 of oats, *by water*.

In 1836, Berlin contained 266,000 inhabitants, amongst whom were 263 medical men, 266 bakers, 81 bankers, 152 barbers, 122 brandy-distillers, 37 brewers, and 51 coffee-house keepers, 110 confectioners, 56 midwives, more than 600 painters of different descriptions, 500 grocers (*materialisten*), 150 professors, 57 large milliners, 68 restaurateurs, 2145 tailors, 1950 shoemakers, 124 innkeepers, and 113 tobacconists. There 24 burial-places, 32 printing-offices, 84 hotels, 4 prisons, 78 inns, 40 churches, 39 shops for objects of art, 40 licensed pawnbrokers, 206 schools, and 53 periodicals.

According to Thaers, a peasant with a small family, in Prussia and Brandenburg, requires for his support, 102 Prussian dollars annually.

The following abstract of the state of the savings-banks in the kingdom of Prussia may not be without its interest, as connected with the statistics of that country:

* Robberies and crimes of all sorts are greatly on the increase in Berlin, if we are to believe a recent number of the *Journal de Francfort*. According to the official accounts, above 10,600 persons were arrested in the course of the year 1836, and 2870 robberies are reported during the same period; but the Journal adds, that it is well known, that the catalogue of robberies does not comprise one half of those which have been really committed. In Berlin, as well as in London and Paris, the increase of youthful offenders, and the number of vagabond boys wandering about the streets, studying mischief, and supporting themselves by precarious and often criminal means, has excited the attention of the government.

	Number of Savings' Banks.	Deposited yearly. Thalers.	Drawn out. Thalers.	Present Capital. Thalers.
Prussia Proper - -	4 ..	67,476 ...	43,552 ...	144,274
Silesia - - -	22 ...	207,511 ...	134,044 ...	451,221
Pomerania - - -	8 ...	196,871 ...	154,325 ...	952,157
Brandenburg - -	8 ...	448,608 ...	401,105 ...	1,849,109
Prussian Saxony -	13 ...	258,574 ...	171,744 ...	907,757
Westphalia - -	8 ...	85,557 ...	75,035 ...	141,920
Rhenish Provinces -	17 ...	98,585 ...	61,804 ...	403,331
Total - -	80	1,363,182	1,040,609	4,849,769

From a recent official return of the valued rent of the city of Berlin, we are led to infer that the rental is moderate in proportion to that of some other cities of Europe, which are more frequented by travellers and absentees. Out of all the lodgings of the city, more than one-fourth part pay less than 30, and rather more than one-half pay from 30 to 50, dollars of annual rent. There are not quite 500 lodgings which pay from 500 to 1000 dollars of annual rent, and not 40 which pay 1000 dollars annually. There are not 20 houses in Berlin which pay so much as from 1200 to 1500 dollars for annual rent, or which, in English money are rented at from 180*l.* to 225*l.* yearly. The entire rent of all the 41,037 lodgings of Berlin amounted, in 1824, only to 3,657,690 dollars (about 600,000*l.*)*.

Out of 49,935 families inhabiting Berlin in a recent year, 12,087 were unable to pay the communal taxes. From 1822 to 1826, the number of mendicants doubled itself, and the number of families receiving relief, rose from 2990 to 3475†.

In 1834, there were 26,548 births in the government-district of Potsdam, of which 13,781 were male, and 12,767 female; of these 2163 were illegitimate, and 1161 premature and still-born. Amongst them, there were 348 twin births, and three of three children; consequently, one child in 12 was illegitimate, one in 222 still-born, and there was one twin-born in 76. 20,619 persons died, 10,872 males and 9,747 females. 5080 died at less than a year old, that is, the fifth of the whole number of children born; 52 died at more than 90, viz., 24 men and 28 women. 2543 died of old age, 4660 of inflammatory diseases, 7885 of

* Strang, i. 270, 271. † Schön, Op. Cit. 169.

internal chronic diseases, 1684 of sudden attacks, 367 of external diseases, 239 during delivery and in childbed; one of every 111 children, therefore, cost the mother her life. 554 died of the small-pox, 362 by accidents, and 130 by suicide.

The proportion of lunatics to the population in Prussia has been rated, perhaps incorrectly, as one in 666⅔.

The total number of blind persons in Silesia was estimated, a few years ago by Schön, at 2000, at which time there existed in that province of Prussia only two institutions for their relief.

In 1830 and 1831, there were 109 gymnasiums and colleges in Prussia, at which were instructed 23,767 pupils. The number of students in the seven universities of the monarchy was, during the winter of 1829-30, 6160, of whom 1211 were strangers. In the university of Berlin alone were 127 professors, of whom 49 were ordinary and 42 extraordinary; 29 were private teachers, and 7 professors of the arts. At the University of Berlin were 1816 pupils, of whom

585 studied Theology,
674 — Law,
302 — Medicine, and
255 — Philosophy.

At the same time there were at Bonne 937 students, of whom

6 were studying Catholic divinity,
156 — Protestant divinity,
250 — Law,
145 — Medicine,
117 — Philosophy.

In the elementary schools of the Prussian dominions in 1831, the proportion of scholars to every 1000 inhabitants was 147, or about one in seven; the aggregate of scholars being 1,937,934 (987,475 boys, and 950,459 girls). The number of teachers of all denominations, male and female, was 24,919, and the number of schools 21,889.

The middle schools (*Mittelschulen*) existing in the Prussian states, in the same year, amounted to 823, viz., 481 for boys and 342 for girls, besides the gymnasiums and other superior schools,

140 in number. In the middle schools for boys, there were 1532 teachers; and in the middle schools for girls, the teachers of both sexes were 1,278. In the gymnasiums and other superior schools, the numbers of head and assistant teachers were, respectively, 1124 and 369. The number of male pupils frequenting the middle schools was 56,789, and of female pupils 46,598, making a total of 103,477; while the number of pupils receiving instruction in the gymnasiums, amounted to 26,041.

The proportion of *divorces* in the kingdom of Prussia is so many as one in 37 marriages*. The amount is so large as to be scarcely credible. Unfortunately the review from which I quote it is a mixed digest of three German statistical works, and it does not state from which of the three this painful result is obtained. The reader will do well to compare it with an equally extraordinary calculation relative to the divorces of Saxony, given under that head.

The following statement is connected with the moral statistics of Berlin; and we present it with some accessory details. There exist at present in the city of Berlin,

2	Houses of ill fame of the first	class.
26	. . . . .	second class.
3	. . . . .	third, or lowest class.
Total 31	Houses.	

The number of prostitutes inhabiting these houses is 275; there are also 26 who have private lodgings; so that the whole amount of those whose names are inscribed at the police-office, in 1837, as prostitutes, is 301.

To compare this number with Paris we shall state, that on the last day of the year 1834, there were 3816 females registered by the police of Paris; of these 63 were declared by the medical inspectors to be labouring under syphilis, which is a proportion of about one in 60; a more satisfactory result than had been obtained at any previous period. In 1800, the proportion of those thus affected had been so high as one in 9; in 1812, one

* Bulletin Universel, *Sect. Geographique*, tom. v., p. 67.

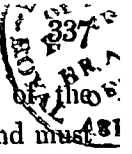
in 24; and 1816, one in 26. The monthly average of the whole year, 1834, was about one in 43. As to the origin or birth-place of these registered women, the Department of the Seine (in which Paris is situated,) furnished about a fourth part; next in frequency occur the departments most near to Paris, and several manufacturing districts. Among the foreigners, Belgium supplied the largest amount, 61; next Prussia, 16; then Switzerland, 13; Holland 10, the United States 7, England 5, Ireland 3: five were from Italy, one from Austria, and one from Russia. The natives of several other countries are enumerated*.

In Prussia, the following regulations have been established respecting prostitutes and houses of ill fame:—All prostitutes must take up their abode in houses which are licensed by the police. These are not tolerated except in large and populous towns, and there only in unfrequented and obscure streets. They are under the strict superintendance of the police, and are regularly visited by a medical man. Spirituous liquors are not allowed to be sold in them. No person can be received an inmate of them without the knowledge of the police; and the infraction of this regulation is severely punished. Girls of tender age are not allowed, under any pretext, to enter such houses. As soon as a prostitute is pregnant, the circumstance must be communicated to the police, in order that the latter may take measures to prevent infanticide. During her pregnancy, the woman who keeps such houses is bound to take care of her, but as soon as the child is weaned it is separated from its mother.

The keeper of the house is not allowed to lodge any females except prostitutes in his house; and the latter are forbidden, either in the streets or at their windows, to speak to the passers-by, or otherwise to excite attention. No visiter is allowed to remain later than midnight, and after that hour no person is admitted. The house-keeper is forbidden to admit any woman, except his regular lodgers, into his house, even for the shortest space of time.

Respecting syphilis, the following are the medical police

* Nouveau Dictionnaire de Police, par Elouin, Trebuchet, et Labat. (Article, *Mœurs.*)



regulations. When a prostitute is infected, the keeper of the house must instantly announce the fact to the police, and must follow its directions for the cure of the patient. The concealment of the infection, either by the patient or by the housekeeper, is severely punished. The inmates who refuse to submit to, or who seek to evade, the regular examination of their surgeon, or the superintendance of the police, are liable to be arrested and confined in the House of Correction, whence they are removed to workhouses, where they remain until they are capable of gaining a respectable livelihood.

Persons, not residing in such houses, who know that they are infected with syphilis, and who, nevertheless, do not refrain, are liable to be punished. Every keeper of such houses is furnished with a written description of the symptoms of syphilis, with which, also, he is bound to make his lodgers acquainted. When a visitor is infected by an inmate, the housekeeper is bound to pay the expenses of his medical treatment. On the other hand, if the inmate can prove that any particular person has been the source of the evil, that person has to pay for her cure, and a fine of fifty dollars besides.

The medical men throughout the country are particularly enjoined, when a case of syphilis occurs, to try to discover its origin, in order that persons of a debauched character, who are continually propagating the contagion, may be cured and punished. The police is to be made acquainted with every case of syphilis, occurring in private families.

Servants who *seduce* the daughters or other relations of their employers, to whom, on account of disparity of rank, they cannot be married, are to be punished by from one to three years' imprisonment in a house of correction. Even in cases where there is no disparity of rank, a confinement of from six months to a year may be inflicted. A parent and child of opposite sexes are forbidden to sleep together, if the latter be more than ten years of age; and children of different sexes, and of more than ten years old, are not to sleep in the same bed*.

* Nicolai, Grundriss der Sanitäts-Polizei, mit besonderer Beziehung auf den Preussischen Staat. Berlin, 1835.

The proportion of *violent deaths* in Prussia is very nearly one in 40 among the male deaths, but among the women only one in 127. *Small-pox* caused one death in 122 deaths, during an average of fifteen years. During six years one death in 500 persons took place from *sudden fits*. The deaths from Asiatic cholera were very numerous in Prussia,—so many as 32,647 took place in 1831, while, in the same year, 60,000 died of the infirmities of old age. Females do not appear to marry, usually, much before the age of twenty-five. About one-sixth of all the female deaths, between the fourteenth and forty-fifth year, take place in childbed. From 1829 to 1831, there was, on an average, one born to 26 living, and one death in somewhat more than 31*.

STATISTICS OF CRIME IN THE SEVEN PROVINCES OF OLD PRUSSIA.

FOR THE YEAR 1819.

Crimes against Persons.		Crimes against Property.	
Provinces.	Proportion of Inhabitants to one Criminal.	Provinces.	Proportion of Inhabitants to one Criminal.
1. Pomerania	2218	1. Pomerania	1042
2. Silesia	1636	2. Silesia	810
3. Westphalia	1314	3. Posen	504
4. Brandenburg	1157	4. Brandenburg	485
5. Saxony	1130	5. Saxony	471
6. Prussia	1044	6. Prussia	404
7. Posen	743	7. Westphalia	182

FOR 1822.

1. Pomerania	2634	1. Pomerania	1170
2. Saxony	2574	2. Posen	768
3. Brandenburg	2134	3. Silesia	710
4. Silesia	1777	4. Saxony	617
5. Posen	1495	5. Brandenburg	534
6. Westphalia	1479	6. Prussia	458
7. Prussia	1242	7. Westphalia	440

* From the valuable "Statistical View of Births and Deaths in the Prussian States," compiled by Hoffman, Director of the Statistical Office of Berlin, and translated by Mr. Deverell in the "Transactions of the Statistical Society of London," vol. i., part i., p. 121. A still more recent official document respecting the births, marriages, and deaths in the Prussian dominions, during the year 1836, has appeared in the "Statistical Journal" for November, 1837. The appearance of a periodical work in London, solely devoted to the science of statistics, supplies a long felt deficiency, and affords a good omen.

FOR 1825.

Crimes against Persons.

Provinces.	Proportion of Inhabitants to one Criminal.
1. Pomerania	2749
2. Silesia	1795
3. Brandenburg	1727
4. Saxony	1648
5. Westphalia	1449
6. Prussia	1433
7. Posen	1340

Crimes against Property.

Provinces.	Proportion of Inhabitants to one Criminal.
1. Pomerania	1427
2. Silesia	864
3. Westphalia	822
4. Posen	772
5. Prussia	658
6. Brandenburg	642
7. Saxony	634

In the year 1833, there were, on an average, daily, 810 prisoners in the house of correction at Spandau, and 546 in that at Brandenburg. At the end of the year there remained 1419 in both, of whom 33 were condemned to imprisonment for life, and 375 for more than 10 years; 695, almost the half, were recommittals; of these, 499 are from Berlin; and there are 15 who have suffered punishment in the house of correction from six to nine times.

An analysis has been made of the state of education among the prisoners confined in the province of Brandenburg. It appears from this, that out of 100 prisoners, only 11 can neither read, write, nor calculate; 16 can only read and write, and 37 can only read.

During 1835, 10,134 persons were arrested at Berlin, without reckoning military or foreigners. The population is about 250,000, so that one in 25 of the inhabitants of that city, during that year, passed a greater or less time in prison. Only 2962 women were in confinement, but among them were some for the heaviest crimes, and two were sentenced to death for murder.

The smallest numbers of juvenile delinquencies has been observed to occur in the least instructed and entirely agricultural provinces of Pomerania and Posen; and the largest numbers in the best instructed, and also most industrious and manufacturing provinces, those of Prussian Saxony and the Rhenish countries, whose commercial and manufacturing districts surpass even the metropolis of Prussia in this class of transgressors. Since the

year 1820, to the honour of this country, twenty-eight institutions for juvenile delinquents, or neglected children (none of them larger than for sixty boys or girls), have been established, and supported by voluntary subscriptions, in different parts of the kingdom, under the especial protection of the Minister for Public Instruction. Under this excellent system the indictments against children of an age capable of having thoroughly participated in their benefits has decreased; while the indictments against children under that age has increased*. These schools furnish religious and moral instruction, and accomplish the education of the heart,—while in most common schools the attainment of writing and reading, and the like, are the points chiefly attended to. This is the true reason why so many prisoners are found in all countries who can read and write, who, in short, are comparatively what is called *educated:* their education has only supplied them with accomplishments, but not with principles of good conduct. Unless religious instruction goes hand in hand with literary education, we only place in the hands of the individual a powerful instrument of mischief to himself and to the community. John Falk, who founded in 1813 a House of Reform for juvenile offenders at Weimar, thus expressed himself in his petition to the Chambers of the Grand Duchy: "The acquirements mechanically imparted to rogues can serve only as so many master-keys put into their hands to break into the sanctuary of humanity."

An official report, lately published, of the high-court of justice at Magdeburg, shows the importance of the "tribunal of common arbitration" recently established in Prussia. Of 532 causes brought before that tribunal, from May 1, 1834, to January 1, 1836, 432 were settled by amicable arrangement. But this tribunal possesses a still greater advantage, inasmuch as personal offences of little importance which are often both inconvenient and ridiculous, when brought before higher tribunals, are, in this manner, satisfactorily arranged. Another official report states,

* See "Remarks on the Relation between Education and Crime," by Francis Lieber, and Dr. Julius, (Philadelphia, 1835,) p. 16.

that, out of 6366 causes thus submitted, 4852 were thus settled, and only 695 sent to higher courts.

There were no fewer than 127,564 civil actions in Prussia, during the year 1826 alone, which afforded a proportion of one suit at law to eighty inhabitants. In the year 1830, the criminal actions brought before the tribunals of Prussia, amounted to 112,275, out of which number 71,000 were cases of police. In those provinces of Prussia in which a strict line of separation exists between civil and criminal causes, the decisions of the courts are far more speedy; thus, in 1830, in the Rhenish provinces, in which such a demarcation prevails, the courts dispatched seven-eighths of the civil causes, seven-eighths of the correctional processes, and all the criminal causes; while, in the Eastern provinces, on the contrary, where the judicial bodies combine all causes in the same court, only nine-tenths of the civil processes, and two-thirds of the criminal causes, were decided*.

The policy of maintaining so large an army, and of enforcing a military education on all her subjects, is the most remarkable feature which Prussia at this moment presents to the observer, and is a difficult problem, not capable of being summarily discussed. Under a king, however, of extreme moderation in expenditure, and under a most prudent succession of ministers, the difficulties inseparable from this condition are for a time kept under.

Unfortunately, in proportion as this excessive military system has developed itself, the number of individuals devoted to the pursuits of industry has declined. Thus, in Silesia, on comparing the number of artisans of the year 1831, with those which had existed in 1828, it was found that,

The Bakers had diminished in number	257
Butchers	212
Shoemakers	153
Tailors	507
Carpenters	87
Masons	82
Weavers	1259
Small Shopkeepers	215†

* See Schön, Op. Cit. † Ibid, p. 243.

Since the peace, Prussia has connected herself more closely with Russia than with any other state, and her principal object appears to have been to take the lead of the German confederacy. Her new commercial system is an experiment, the results of which are not as yet decided; nor are political inquirers agreed either as to the precise motives which induced its formation, or as to the probable influence which it will have on the prosperity of the various German states and of their neighbours.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE KINGDOM OF BAVARIA.

The Royal Family. Circles and Population; Principal Towns. Religion. Universities and Schools. Budget; Army. Form of Government; Offices of Government and of the Crown. Statistics of the Population. Produce. Cultivation. Manufactures. Military Conscription. Vaccination. Statistics of the General Hospital at Munich for Nineteen Years. Number of Illegitimate Children. Courts of Justice.

THE royal family of Bavaria are of the Catholic religion. The present king is Lewis I., born August 25, 1786, who succeeded his father, Maximilian I., October 13, 1825, and who married, October 12, 1810, Theresa (C. F. A.), princess of Saxe-Altenburg, by whom he has eight children; viz., Maximilian, the crown-prince, born in 1811; Otho, king of Greece, born 1815; Luitpold, and Adalbert; and four daughters, of whom one, Matilda, born 1813, is married to Lewis, grand duke of Hesse-Darmstadt. The brothers and sisters of the king are, Augusta, born 1788, now dowager duchess of Leuchtenberg and princess of Eichstädt; Caroline, born 1792, now the dowager empress of Austria; and Prince Charles, born 1795, a general of cavalry.

The following is a view of the circles of the kingdom of Bavaria, and of their population:—

	German Sq. Miles.	Population in 1833.	Families.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.
1. Isar Circle	288	595,363	124,494	16	34	2,006
2. Lower Danube	197·30	432,068	88,659	12	46	2,048
3. Regen	194·70	432,172	97,996	28	26	3,160
4. Upper Danube	171·75	516,435	117,242	23	47	1,778
5. Rezat	143·36	552,028	125,454	42	55	2,004
6. Upper Main	186·43	547,003	123,154	37	72	2,271
7. Lower Main	155·70	568,337	120,829	44	55	1,188
8. Rhine	140·05	543,984	111,468	28	16	665
Total	1,477·20	4,187,397	909,296	230	951	15,120

The principal towns are the following:—Munich (95,000 inhabitants), Nuremberg (41,000), Augsburg (35,000), Regensburg (26,500), Würzburg (24,000), Bamberg (20,800), Fürth (16,735), Anspach (16,735), Baireuth (13,985), Erlangen (11,580), Passau (10,300).

With the exception of the Jews, and of about 5,000 French, the inhabitants of Bavaria are all Germans. With respect to religious distinctions, they are divided, according to a census taken some years ago, into 2,880,383 Catholics, 1,094,633 Protestants, 4427 members of various sects, and 57,574 Jews. There are two Catholic archbishops, six Catholic bishops, 181 deacons, and 2756 parishes. There are 1215 Protestant parishes, and 79 deacons; also, 138 reformed congregations.

There are three Universities, viz., at Munich, Würzburg, and Erlangen. In 1836, there were at Munich 1329 students; at Erlangen, in 1834-5, 300; and at Würzburg, in 1834-5, 408.

In Bavaria, there are 24 gymnasiums, one lyceum, five seminaries for schoolmasters, 34 Latin schools, 31 local school-commissions, one institution for the deaf and dumb, one institution for the blind, one ladies' school for the higher classes, and one school for artists. In 1831, the whole country contained 5008 schools, in which there were 489,196 scholars, and 7114 tutors of various ranks. There is an academy of sciences at Munich, which comprises 176 ordinary, 10 extraordinary, 50 honorary, and 131 corresponding members.

The yearly expenditure of the Bavarian government, from 1831 to 1837, has been 28,000,836 florins.

The items are as follows:—

	Florins.
Interest, &c., of the Public Debt	8,100,608
Expenses of the Royal Family and Court	3,188,800
Council of State	73,000
Ministry of Justice	923,960
Ministry of the Interior	660,000
Ministry of Finance	772,000
The Church (*Cultus*)	1,336,000
Education	767,812
Medical Establishments	154,000
Benevolent objects	169,000

	Florins.
Police	414,000
Trading and Agricultural Establishments	156,000
Certain Outlays of the Exchequer	109,000
Roads, Bridges and Water-works	1,232,000
Public Edifices	638,000
The Army	7,451,500

The yearly revenue, during the same period, has been 28,185,139 florins, of which sum, 7,385,139 florins have been derived from direct taxes, and 20,800,000 florins from indirect taxes, state-establishments and domains.

At the commencement of the year 1830, the public debt amounted to 132,814,753 florins, 38⅞ kreutzers, but in the course of the year 1830-31, it was lessened by 896,563 florins, 20 kreutzers.

According to the latest reports which have been laid before the chambers, the army consists of one field-marshal, two generals of infantry and cavalry, 15 general-lieutenants, 26 general-majors, 15 *inhabers** of regiments, 37 colonels, 45 colonel-lieutenants, 73 majors, 204 captains of foot and horse of the first class, and 133 of the second, 229 first lieutenants, and 600 second lieutenants. The entire army consists of 57,061 men, (of whom 17,196 have always leave of absence,) and is divided as follows:—

	Men.
Body-guard of Halberdiers	119
Two Garrison-companies and a Palace-guard	407
One Body-regiment of Infantry of the line	2,651
Fifteen Infantry regiments of the line	35,169
Four Battalions of Chasseurs	4,559
Two Cuirassier-regiments of the line	2,153
Six Regiments Light Horse	6,585
Two Regiments of Artillery	4,866
One Battalion of Engineers (*technisches*)	330
One Company of Pontoniers	98
One Company of Workmen	144

The Bavarian contingent to the army of the confederacy, amounts to 35,800 men.

The government is a constitutional monarchy, founded on the

* Proprietors?

deed *(constitutionsacte)* of May 26, 1818. The king possesses all the powers of the administration of the state, and exercises them for the objects which he has specified in the constitutional declaration; he is, however, bound to obey the decrees of the German confederacy, of which Bavaria forms an integral part.

The territories of the kingdom form a single, indivisible, inalienable whole, to which all fresh acquisitions belong, and a clear definition exists, of that which is the property of the state, of that which is alienable, and of that which is not. There is a chamber of councillors (*Reichsräthe*), and a chamber of deputies, as organ and representative of the nation. The act of constitution, above-mentioned, fixes distinctly their rights and privileges. The crown is hereditary (though to the exclusion of females) according to the law of primogeniture and of relationship *(agnatisch-linearische Erbfolge)*; but on the death of the last male descendant of the royal family, if there should be no near relationship with a German house to make valid its claims, the crown can pass to a female. See the Family Laws *(Familien und Haus Gesetze)* of 1816.

The chamber of councillors consists of the princes of royal blood, of the officers of the crown, of the archbishops, of the heads of the mediatised families, of the heads of the Catholic and Protestant Churches, of the hereditary councillors, and of the councillors for life. There are the usual ministers of state, and the minister for foreign affairs is also minister of the royal household. The grand dignitaries of the crown are, a grand master, a grand chamberlain, a grand marshal, and a grand master of the post. The supreme officers of court are, a grand master, a grand chamberlain, a grand master of the ceremonies, a grand equerry, and a captain general of the body-guard.

Between 1817 and 1828, there was an augmentation in the population of Bavaria of 477,560, which was an annual increase of about 43,414. In 1828, there were 140,079 births, and 108,523 deaths. No marriage can take place between humble persons not possessing some capital, unless by previous permission of the Institutions for the Poor, which are appointed by law in each town and village. The directors who do not attend to the

decrees on this head, have to answer for the maintenance of the new families, if they should not be able to support themselves. So also the priests and other churchmen are responsible for the support of such persons whom they have married without leave from the authorities—besides other fines imposed on the breach of the regulations relative to marriage. In respect to rank and occupation, the adult male population is divided as follows:—there are 25,931 nobles, clergymen and civil and military officers, 329,785 tradesmen, mechanics, &c., and 480,930 peasants and day-labourers; the soldiers are enumerated above.

The thirteenth part of this country is uncultivated. The people live principally on potatoes, flour and milk; their favourite beverage is beer, and their wine is that of the Main and Rhine. On an average, Bavaria produces annually, 68,800 quintals of hops, of which 52,800 are consumed in the country, and the rest exported; the value of this annual produce is from seven to eight millions of florins. Of tobacco 30,000 quintals are grown annually, on an average. The oils are very abundant, but not fine; principally, from the want of good mills. In this country, there were in a recent year 1,895,687 head of horned cattle, 1,238,103 sheep, and 324,991 horses; there are great quantities of pigs and poultry, but not many goats and asses. Honey and wax are not produced in sufficient quantity for home-consumption.

With respect to cultivation in Bavaria, the following calculations have been made: 9,793,266 acres (*Tagwerke*) are laid out in ploughed land, 363,812 in gardens, vineries and dwelling-places, 2,792,160 in meadows, 6,444,846 in woods; 507,247 are water, and 2,232,771 are heaths and pasture land.

A polytechnic committee was founded at Munich in 1816, which is composed of artisans, scholars and official men from all parts of the kingdom; it exerts a very favourable influence on industry by its lectures and publications. It has instituted an exhibition of manufactures which has excited great activity amongst artisans of every class. Similar committees have been established at Augsburg, at Nuremberg, and in other towns. In Bavaria there are not many large, but there are a great number of small manufactories, particularly of linen cloth. In some parts, a weaver's

loom may be found in almost every peasant's cabin. In woollen-cloths, the Bavarians cannot rival foreigners, because they want good machines, and large manufactories; their wool, besides, is of an inferior quality. Their cotton-goods are also not first-rate, though this branch of industry is better understood than the foregoing. The tanneries are flourishing, and far more skins are exported than imported. The paper is inferior to the English, Dutch or Swiss. A profitable straw-manufacture is carried on in some parts. A great number of persons are employed in the felling and transport of wood. The toys of Nuremberg and Berchtesgaden are universally known. Bavarian beer is probably the best of the European continent, and is exported to a considerable extent. There are fifty manufactories of tobacco in full activity; several of sugar from beet-root, and forty-five glass-houses in a flourishing state. There are nine manufactories of porcelain, of which the most celebrated is that of Nymphenburg; and fourteen of delft-ware, which, however, is of an inferior description. The seven salt-works of this kingdom produce annually, on an average, about 645,000 quintals of salt, of which 70,000 quintals are exported; they yield a net profit to the government of 2,217,375 florins annually. The quarries of lime, gypsum, freestone, and clay, employ 7200 persons. The coal-mines yield 700,000 quintals annnally. Sulphur is not produced in sufficient quantity for home-consumption, nor is iron; several other metals, too, as mercury, copper, cobalt, and lead, are not very abundant. Gold and silver are found in small quantities in the sands of the Rhine, the Inn, the Danube and the Isar. The manufactory at Amberg furnishes the army with the requisite number of muskets. The goldsmiths, engravers and cutlers of Bavaria compete with those of France and England. There are chain-bridges of iron-wire at Nuremberg and Bamberg.

Every Bavarian who has arrived at the age of 21 is liable to military conscription. During the first two years, he must hold himself in readiness to join his regiment on the receipt of an order so to do. Those exempt from conscription are the only sons of parents who have lost two sons, and any son of parents who have lost three children in the military service of the state. The time

of service is six years. All soldiers who are not completely mounted and equipped are allowed leave of absence.

Vaccination is performed at the expense of the state, and parents, however reluctant they may be, are obliged to submit their children to this operation. At Baireuth, Giesing, Schwabach, Bamberg and Würzburg, there are establishments for the reception of the insane. There are forty-one medicinal springs in Bavaria. The following table shows the number of patients treated, and the rate of mortality, in the *Allgemeines Krankenhaus* (General Hospital) at Munich from its erection in 1813 to the year 1831-2. After the year 1819-20, the patients of the midwifery department are included, and throughout the table, the patients remaining at the end of the year, are included in the number of those received in the succeeding one. I insert it here as one of the most complete ever published in any country.

Years.	Number of Patients.		Total.	Died.		Total number of Deaths.	Rate of Mortality.
	Men.	Women.		Men.	Women.		
$18\frac{13}{14}$	990	626	1616	120	90	210	the 8th
$18\frac{14}{15}$	961	547	1508	136	89	225	the 6th
$18\frac{15}{16}$	1506	790	2296	133	103	236	the 9th
$18\frac{16}{17}$	1945	1189	3134	199	150	349	the 9th
$18\frac{17}{18}$	1752	1195	2947	188	165	353	the 8th
$18\frac{18}{19}$	2152	1580	3732	179	179	358	the 10th
$18\frac{19}{20}$	2110	1605	3715	178	117	295	the 12th
$18\frac{20}{21}$	2007	1554	3561	133	101	234	the 15th
$18\frac{21}{22}$	2040	1836	3876	128	105	233	the 16th
$18\frac{22}{23}$	1963	1872	3835	164	116	280	the 13th
$18\frac{23}{24}$	2218	1941	4159	163	130	293	the 14th
$18\frac{24}{25}$	2376	1890	4266	167	128	295	the 14th
$18\frac{25}{26}$	2885	2207	5092	188	137	325	the 15th
$18\frac{26}{27}$	3739	2181	5920	202	145	347	the 17th
$18\frac{27}{28}$	4135	2151	6286	211	107	318	the 19th
$18\frac{28}{29}$	3825	2564	6389	254	163	417	the 15th
$18\frac{29}{30}$	3240	2497	5737	241	125	366	the 16th
$18\frac{30}{31}$	3432	2818	6250	228	157	385	the 16th
$18\frac{31}{32}$	2933	2775	5708	205	161	366	the 15th
	46,209	33,818	80,027	3417	2468	5885	the $13\frac{1}{2}$th

The excessive number of illegitimate children in Bavaria attracted, in 1835, the attention of its Upper Chamber of Representatives. According to Hoffman, the rate in the rural parts of

Bavaria exceeds that which is found even in the most dissolute cities of Europe. In Munich, the number of children born out of marriage, is nearly the same as that produced by wedlock. The Upper Chamber wished the following points to be considered preparatory to remedial measures: 1. the abolition of the action at law against the father; 2. a provision for the children by the establishment of institutions for their support, at the expense of the state or of the circle; and 3. the punishment of the mothers in houses of correction or in the workhouses. But the Lower Chamber declared that such plans were not reconcileable either with humanity, justice, or morality; that they would expose the weaker sex, and often reduce an innocent woman to the extremities of despair. This is not the place to enter into a discussion of this most important subject. The total number of natural children born in Munich, in 1823 was so many as 990, while the legitimate births were only 1030. In 1834, there were 1291 natural children, counterbalanced by only 1339 legitimate children.

In the circle of the Rhine, the French codes of civil procedure and criminal instruction have been retained, and also the French penal code. There are in Bavaria 18 tribunals of circles and cities which are of the first instance, 205 provincial tribunals, 723 patrimonial courts of the second class, 312 of the first class, and 54 seignorial courts. The civil tribunals of the second instance are, 7 courts of appeal and 7 commercial courts of appeal. Criminals condemned to death are decapitated by the sword; the guillotine is not used in Bavaria.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE KINGDOM OF SAXONY.

The Ruling Family. Circles and Population; Principal Towns. Races. Religion. Educational Institutions. Budget; Army. Form of Government; Officers of Government and of the Court. Statistics of the Population; Births and Deaths; Number of Medical Men; Number of Deaf, Dumb, and Blind. Statistics of Education. Statistics of the Married State. Suicides and Accidents. Criminal Statistics. Salaries, Rent of Houses, and the like.

SAXONY, hitherto, appears to have derived more advantage from the new commercial union than any other state of Germany. The emancipation of the Jews, to a very limited extent, has lately passed the chambers; but this act does not admit them to sit in the chambers, nor to fill high posts.

The royal family of Saxony are of the Catholic religion. The present king is Frederic Augustus, who was born May 18, 1797, and succeeded his uncle, Anthony, June 6, 1836. He married, firstly, Caroline, archduchess of Austria, who died in 1832, and, secondly, Maria, princess of Bavaria. His father Maximilian, who, on the death of the late king, renounced his pretensions to the throne, is still alive, and has, besides Frederic Augustus, three children by his first wife, who was a princess of Parma, and seven by his second, Amelia Augusta, princess of Bavaria, whom he married in 1822. Maximilian was born April 13, 1759.

The following is a view of the circles of the kingdom of Saxony, and of their population :—

	Districts (Amtshauptmannschaften).	German Square Miles.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Inhabitants, 1835.
1. Dresden Circle	5	78·783	32		998	411,864
2. Leipsic	3	63·139	38		1,001	361,251
3. Zwickau	5	84·227	58		873	549,811
4. Bautzen	2	45·527	13		629	257,444
	15	271·676	141	57	3,198	1,580,370

The number of noble families in Saxony is said to be about eighty, but this calculation probably includes only the higher class of nobility.

The principal towns are, Dresden (64,399 inhabitants, not including soldiers and strangers), Leipsic (43,189), Chemnitz (19,572), Freiburg (11,545), Plauen (8,570), Bauzen (8,467), Zittau (8,195), Meissen (7,525). Besides these, there are twelve other towns, each containing more than 5000 inhabitants. 1,525,512 of the inhabitants are Germans; 13,423, Sclavonians or Wends; 850, Jews; and 39, Greeks.

With respect to religion, 1,580,370, are Lutherans; 27,519, Roman Catholics; 39, Greek Catholics; 1591, members of the reformed church; and 850, Jews*.

The following was the rate of increase among the various religious denominations, during a period of about two years, from 1832 to 1834. Amongst the Lutherans, it was 37,017, or 24 per thousand; amongst the members of the reformed church, 230, or 165 per thousand; amongst the Catholics, 240, nearly nine per thousand. The members of the Jewish persuasion had decreased, during the same period, by 24, or 27 per thousand.

In Saxony, there are one consistory; 25 inspectories; 616 Lutheran, and 31 Catholic parishes.

The principal establishments for public instruction are, the university of Leipsic (at which, there were 1436 students in 1833); two land or prince's schools (these were founded at the Reformation, and endowed with part of the church property, which was then devoted to secular purposes); fifteen gymnasiums and classical schools; four seminaries for schoolmasters, a school for miners, an institution for foresters, two military schools, and an agricultural school.

The public expenditure for 1836, was 5,055,714 dollars, 15 groschen, and 8 pfennigs; the revenue amounted to 5,300,390 dollars, 13 groschen, and 7 pfennigs; consequently, there was a surplus of 244,675 dollars, 21 groschen, and 11 pfennigs.

In 1833, the Saxon prime minister, Von Lindenau, in bringing the budget before the chambers at Dresden, estimated the public

* These last statements are drawn from the census of 1832.

income at 5,434,210 dollars (about 815,000*l.*), and the expenditure at 5,130,528 dollars (about 769,800*l.*), leaving a surplus of 45,000*l.*, or upwards of five per cent. on the amount of the income, which would be applied to a reduction of the public debt. It was observed by the minister, that "after subtracting the amount of revenue derived from the crown lands, forests, &c., as well as the local rates, neither of which formed part of the actual burdens imposed by the state, the amount of the imposts actually levied by it did not exceed four millions of dollars, which was two dollars and a half (seven shillings and sixpence) for each inhabitant, being less than in most other German states, and but one-third of the sum contributed by every person in France, one-fourth of that in Belgium, and one-eighth of that in England." He further added, that "the value of the immovable property, viz., lands and houses, in the kingdom of Saxony, was about 512,000,000 dollars (about 76,000,000*l.* sterling); in which estimate, the value of house property was taken at 13,800,000*l.*, that of the seignorial estates, including their appendages, at 3,000,000*l.*, and all other immovable property at 59,200,000*l.*" With reference to the comparison which the Saxon minister has here made, it is to be remarked, that under the item of expenditure, the United Kingdom, which is twenty times larger than Saxony, and has a population sixteen times greater, paid away in various shapes, a sum of 50,908,201*l.* in 1832; and France, which is forty-six times larger, and has a population at least thirty fold greater, expended, in the same year, a sum of 44,203,000*l.* The rate of public expenditure in these three states, therefore, was, as compared with their gross populations, in Saxony (1,553,000 inhabitants), nine shillings and ten-pence per head; in France (33,000,000 inhabitants), twenty-six shillings and three-pence; and in the United Kingdom (24,100,000 inhabitants), within a fraction of forty-two shillings and three-pence.

The standing army amounts to 12,193 men, and is divided as follows:—

	Men.
The Guard	370
Infantry of the line	7080

	Men.
Cavalry	2066
Artillery	1032
Chasseurs	1454
Train	191

The pay of a lieutenant-general is 5000 convention dollars annually; of a major-general, 3000; of a colonel, 2000; of a major, 1200 to 1500; of a captain of the first class, 1000; of a captain of the second class, 800; of a first lieutenant, 400; of a second lieutenant, 240; of a private soldier, 24 dollars annually. In the cavalry, the pay of all the ranks is somewhat more.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 12,000 men. The expenses of the army amount to 32 per cent. on the whole public expenditure*.

The government is a limited monarchy with two representative chambers. Besides the national diet, the old Lusatian provincial chambers continue to exercise their former functions. The two chambers are equal in respect to their rights and powers. The throne is hereditary, to the exclusion of females; on the demise of the last descendant of the present ruling family, it would pass to the house of Saxe-Weimar. Should there be no prince entitled to this succession, either by birth or alliance, the crown may be inherited by a female. The king is of age when he has completed his eighteenth year.

There are the usual ministers of state; the minister of justice is also minister of the royal house. The state-council is composed of the ministers, the presidents of the different circles, councillors, and extraordinary members, and its president is a prince of the royal family.

The authorities subordinate to the different ministers are, the director of the archives of state, the president of the supreme tribunal of appeal, the director of tolls and taxes, the captain general of the mines, the director of the post, the director of the bank, the presidents of the different circles, the general auditor of the supreme tribunal of war, the president of the consistory, the president of the Catholic consistory, and the president of the apostolical vicariate.

* Schön, Op. Cit., p. 243.

The chief officers of the court are, a grand marshal, a grand chamberlain, a grand equerry, a grand huntsman of the court, a marshal of the house, a chamberlain, a director-general of the theatre and of music, and a grand cupbearer.

The limits of Saxony were reduced by the congress of Vienna in 1814; it is now about 140 English miles long, and its greatest breadth is about 75 English miles. The proportion of inhabitants to an English square mile is about 319. The population appears to increase at the rate of one per cent. annually; and, according to Hoffman, would double in about 69⅝ years.

The number of cities and towns is 141, of which there were, in a late year—

				Inhab.
4	with, and above	10,000	inhabitants—in all	143,126
26	.....	4,000	.....	148,821
92	.....	1,000	.....	202,121
and 19	with less than	1,000	.....	14,399
141				

The number of villages, hamlets, &c., is 3501, of which there were—

152	with, and above	1000	inhabitants—in all	251,686
2494	.....	100	.....	756,565
and 855	with less than	100	.....	58,553
3501				

The number of individuals in various detached farms, manufactories, and other buildings, was 4893.

The total number of habitations was 209,122; viz.—

In the Towns	49,006	209,122
Villages, &c.	159,596	
Detached Buildings	520	

Of the above houses, 5314 were uninhabited.

For the whole kingdom, the average proportion of the inhabitants of towns to the rural population, was as 1000 to 2108; for the different circles the proportions were:—

Circle of Dresden,	1000	Inhabitants of Towns to	2034	of the rural population.
Leipsic,	1000	.....	1582	.....
Zwickau,	1000	.....	1797	.....
Bautzen,	1000	.....	1603	.....

In 1833, there were born 58,791 individuals, of whom 30,498 were males, and 28,293 females. In the same year, 42,185 persons died, of whom 21,782 were men, and 20,279 women.

With respect to age, the population is divided as follows:— There are 466,261 children under fourteen years of age (nearly one-third of the whole); 848,981 persons, between fifteen and sixty; and 86,824 above sixty. There are in the whole kingdom 45,108 more women than men. Half the deaths that occur are of persons under the age of fourteen years. The first three months of the year are the most fatal; the mortality decreases after the end of March. In 1830, there were 167 deaths from accidents, and one from hydrophobia.

Saxony contains 450 physicians, 585 surgeons, and 150 apothecaries. The number of infants not vaccinated is greater than the number vaccinated.

The total number of the deaf and dumb, and of the blind, is, by the latest estimate, 1010, and 324, respectively; the exact number of each, in the different circles, being as follows:—

	Deaf and Dumb.			Blind.		
	Males.	Females.	Totals.	Males.	Females.	Totals.
Circle of Dresden	155	144	299	58	50	108
..... Leipsic.....	144	91	235	37	28	65
..... Zwickau	176	136	312	60	50	110
..... Bautzen	79	84	163	21	20	41
Military	1	...	1	...	...	...
Totals	555	455	1010	176	148	324
Resident in Towns	179	121	300	78	57	135
..... Villages	375	334	709	98	91	189
Totals	554	455	1009	176	148	324

It is thus seen that the number of deaf and dumb, in proportion to the population, was 1 in 1579 individuals (in 1832, it was 1 in 1334); and, in like manner, that the number of the blind (which in 1832 was 1 in 3675), was 1 in 4924: showing in both cases a considerable amelioration.

This country contains 1158 ecclesiastics, and 1912 elementary

teachers. A comparison of the whole number of persons receiving education with the entire population, shows the average proportion of the former to the latter to be about 1 in 6, or 178 in 1000 individuals.

The number of widowed persons was 90,136 in the year 1834.

A curious and striking result is exhibited by a comparison of the number of *widows* and *widowers*. Of every 100 widowed persons, there were, in the

Circle of Dresden . .	26	males to	74 females.
— Leipsic . . .	28	—	72 —
— Zwickau . .	31	—	69 —
— Bautzen . . .	30	—	70 —
Whole country . . .	29	—	71 —

The married state is amply illustrated by the documents recently published by the Statistical Society at Dresden. The total number of married persons in the kingdom of Saxony, in the year 1834, was 277,812. Of these pairs, 85,751 lived in towns, and 191,138 in villages. The married persons of all denominations amounted to somewhat more than seven-twentieths, or about one-third of the whole population. A man may not marry before 21 years of age, if he is liable to serve in the army. In Dresden, artisans are not allowed to marry until they become masters in their trade. The number of married persons living *separate* was extremely numerous, so many as 11,213,—namely, 5451 males, and 5762 females. The proportion of *divorced* persons is very large, in relation to the small population of Saxony; they were so many as 3798. The facility with which divorces are procured on trifling pleas, such as incompatibility of temper, is one of the least agreeable features in the domestic life of Germany.

The number of prostitutes at Dresden, ranges between 500 and 600. At Leipsic, they amount, it is said, to 400. No houses of ill-fame are tolerated either at Dresden or at Leipsic.

The proportion of illegitimate to legitimate births for the whole country is, on the average afforded by the four years from 1831 to 1834, one in 6.^{6}.

The number of deaths, occasioned by suicide and accidents, in the years 1832 and 1833, was as follows:—

	1832.			1833.			
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase.
Suicides	55	10	65	87	25	112	47
Accidental deaths...	67	16	83	100	35	135	52
Total violent deaths	122	26	148	187	60	247	99

The number of gensdarmes, belonging to the police of Dresden, is 50.

On the 1st of January, 1831, there were in the prisons of this kingdom, 7 persons accused of assassination, 10 of infanticide, 8 of homicide, 5 of poisoning, 1 of perjury, 6 of rape, 3 of bigamy, 4 of adultery, 27 of incendiary attempts, 37 of robbery and housebreaking, 7 of sacrilege, 407 of robbery without aggravated circumstances, 13 of highway robbery, 6 of passing bad money, 1 of fraudulent bankruptcy, and 124 of rioting.

Of the whole number of persons accused, 1329 (1017 males and 312 females) had been before in custody; and 2024 (1587 males and 437 females) were admitted to bail.

The greatest number of offences was committed by individuals between the ages of 21 and 40 years; and in regard to sex, the proportion of male to female offenders was about two-thirds.

	Males.	Females.	Totals.
Punished	2794	1050	3844 or more than one-half.
Acquitted	768	297	1065 or about one-seventh.
Died, escaped, or committed suicide	66	22	88
Remained in custody at the end of the year...	1938	557	2495 or one-third.
	5566	1926	7492

The offences committed by the military, in 1832, amounted to 424, and the offenders to 549, of whom 17 were superior officers, 40 subalterns, and 492 privates. Of the whole number, 326 were punished, 83 acquitted, and the rest remained in custody at the end of the year.

The number of military delinquents, confined for different periods in the prison-house at Dresden, was

In 1831	45
In 1832	22
In 1833	26*

The salary of a cabinet minister in Saxony is 5000 thalers annually. The minister for foreign affairs receives 3000 thalers, besides for the expenses of hospitality. A judge receives 2000 thalers annually†. The deputies receive (I believe) three thalers daily for their expenses. The wages of a man-servant are about 20 thalers annually: 25 are large wages. A female cook receives, perhaps, 14 thalers annually; but the servants have a small present made to them at certain festivals.

The rent of the first floor of one of the best mansions of Dresden is about 500 thalers annually, unfurnished. Such is the rent which one of the chief foreign ministers pays. A first or second floor of an excellent house may be had for 200 dollars annually, and a sufficiently good one for a moderate family for 100 up to 150 thalers.

The total number of English who have spent more than one year at Dresden, and who are at present residing there, is 150.

The number of passports annually delivered at Dresden, is, on an average of six years, 3000. This number appears somewhat small: probably, it only refers to new passports, and not to passports examined.

The Statistical Society of Dresden, in its last Annual Report, of December, 1837, publishes the remarkable fact, that the mortality of the whole kingdom fluctuates, in various places, between 1 in 19, and 1 in 65 annually.

* We are indebted for many of the above statements to an important document published by the Statistical Society of Dresden, and translated in the "Proceedings of the Statistical Society of London."

† A burgomaster receives 2200 thalers annually; a *stadtrath* receives from 1000 to 1800.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE KINGDOM OF HANOVER.

History of Hanover, from the earliest period to the present time. Genealogy of the reigning Families of Hanover and Brunswick. Present Royal Family. Statistical View of the Provinces of Hanover and of their Population; Births and Deaths; Principal Towns. Religion; Religious Institutions. Educational Institutions, Teachers, and Scholars. Prisons. Budget. Army. Density of Population; Relative Proportion of Civic Population. Statistics of Cultivation, and Proportion of Cultivated to Uncultivated Land. Division of Landed Property. Exports and Imports. Ships. Number of Tradesmen. Physical character of the Country. Products. Manufactures. Character of the Inhabitants. Administration of Justice. Description of the Town of Hanover. The Town of Göttingen.

THE accession of the electors of Hanover to the throne of England, in the person of George I., and the subsequent intimate connexion of the two states, have induced me to devote a considerable space to the history of Hanover, and to an account of its actual condition. The same motive has prompted me to enlarge in the following chapter on the subject of Brunswick, which has long been subject to the same family.

The early history of the provinces which constitute the present kingdom of Hanover, is involved in an obscurity which no research has, as yet been able to dispel. Drusus Germanicus who penetrated into the north of Germany, in order to revenge the slaughter of the Roman army by Hermann, never made any durable conquests in these regions. Their ancient inhabitants were, doubtless, Celts and Germans; and, at the beginning of the Christian era, several tribes of the latter, such as the Cheruscians, Westphalians, and Thuringians, remained masters of the territory, and formed together a duchy. The wild and inacessible nature of the country occasioned these tribes to preserve longer

than those in the south, the old German forms of government and barbarian customs.

The earliest certain data which we possess respecting these countries, are furnished by the wars of Charlemagne, who destroyed the heathen fastnesses called, according to some, Brunswyck, and, in Latin, *Vicus Brunonis*. The first of the Brunos on record, who are looked upon as the ancestors of the present house of Brunswick, was a Count Bruno, duke of Engern, the friend of Wittekind the Saxon. A descendant of this chief was Otho, duke of Thuringia and Saxony, who flourished about the end of the ninth century, when he inherited the territories comprising a considerable part of the present kingdom of Hanover, and who, in 911, declined the imperial crown of Germany, on account of his great age. His son Henry was chosen emperor of Germany, and was surnamed the Fowler, and sometimes the Town-builder. This prince, in whom all the manly virtues are said to have been united, seems to have been much attached to his hereditary dominions; he greatly improved the town of Brunswick, and made it the imperial residence, a privilege which it continued to enjoy under the three Othos, his successors, commonly called the Saxon emperors. After the death of Otho III., great-grandson of Henry the Fowler, Brunswick fell to his cousin, Bruno II., who began to reign in 1002, and to whom the city of Brunswick owes the rudiments of its municipal institutions. His successors were Ludolf, Egbert I., and Egbert II., the last of whom having no issue, the emperor, Henry IV., was ambitious of inheriting his possessions, and not having patience to await his natural decease, had recourse to treachery, and murdered him at his hereditary castle of Hohewort. But this crime did not obtain its object, for the people of Brunswick, roused by it to indignation, drove the emperor's hirelings out of their territory, proclaimed Gertrude, Egbert's sister, their sovereign, bore her in triumph to her ancestral castle, and swore to obey and defend her.

About the year 1090, Gertrude married Henry the Fat, count of Nordheim, whose territories were incorporated with hers. Their daughter Richenza, married Lothario, count of Supplinburg, whose territories were also united to those of the house of

Bruno. The only issue of this union was Gertrude, who espoused a Guelph, duke of Bavaria, and margrave of Este, whose house had been already celebrated for at least three centuries in Germany and Italy. This union is the common origin of the two lines of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel and Brunswick-Luneburg.

The family of the Guelphs can be traced so far back as the reign of Charlemagne. About the year 800, there was a Warin, count of Altorf, in Suabia, whose descendants, according to an old legend, obtained the name of Guelph in the following manner. Isenbrand, his son and successor, saw once an old woman who had three children at a birth, and thinking this unnatural, he called her an adultress. The old woman, in her anger at this insult, prayed heaven that Irmentrant, wife of the count, might have as many children at a birth, as there are months in the year. Her prayer was answered, and Irmentrant was delivered of twelve boys; but fearing the severity of her husband's character, she commanded her servant to drown eleven of them. Whilst the latter was proceeding to obey her mistress's orders, the count met her, and asked her what was in the basket she was carrying. The girl frightened, answered that they were "Guelphs," (young dogs). But the count not being satisfied with the reply, took off the cloth from the basket, and judging that the children were his own from their liveliness and strength, he preserved their lives, educated them secretly, and when they were grown up, took them all again to their mother. One of the twelve, Guelph the First was the successor of Isenbrand.

The descendant of this family, who in 1127, married the above-mentioned Gertrude, was Henry the Proud, who, in 1137, was a competitor at Mainz for the imperial crown, with Conrad of Hohenstauffen. The latter being successful, partly owing to the fear generally entertained of the overweening power of Henry, demanded of his rival that he should resign the sceptre of Saxony, inasmuch as it was illegal for one head to bear two ducal crowns. To decide the dispute, both parties had recourse to arms; and the war, which raged with the greatest fury for several years, was not quite terminated, even by the death of Henry, who was poisoned in 1140.

The son and successor of this prince, was the famous Henry the Lion, who was born 1129, and who, on coming of age in 1146, found his title to his hereditary dominions keenly disputed by his ambitious neighbours. However, he soon succeeded in driving his rival, Albert the Bear, out of Saxony, and in discomfiting the archbishop of Bremen. But in the south, he had to encounter a more powerful rival in Conrad, the emperor, who opposed his claim to Bavaria. It was in vain that he appealed for justice to the diet at Frankfort, or strengthened his position by marrying Clementina, daughter of the powerful duke of Zähringen, an inveterate foe of the imperial family; he was finally compelled to take up arms. The war was prosecuted with various success, until, in 1152, the Guelphs retaliated on their adversaries, and poisoned the emperor, at the instigation of their ally, Roger of Naples.

In the mean time, the youthful Henry had fought successfully against the Vandals, and secured, by the success of his arms, the throne of Denmark to Canute, the rival of Swene; and when, in 1154, Barbarossa, who had succeeded Conrad, ceased to contest his right to Bavaria, he became more powerful than was consistent with the stability of the imperial throne. His territories stretched from the Baltic to the Adriatic; Westphalia and Saxony—all the country between the Rhine and the Elbe—obeyed him; the greater part of Bavaria was his fief; and for the hereditary possessions of the Guelphs in Italy, his Italian vassals had not only to do him homage, but to pay him 400 marks of silver.

In 1157, he accompanied Frederic Barbarossa on his Polish expedition, when together they compelled King Boleslaw to acknowledge the supremacy of the German emperor. Barbarossa was also assisted by Henry in his Italian wars, and, as a recompense, left him uncontrolled power in the north of Germany, where he was continually engaged in extending his power, and increasing his dominions. The lion which he erected in the centre of his capital, Brunswick, was a fit emblem of his character and projects. He made the Sclavonian rulers of Pomerania and Mecklenburg his vassals; and another Sclavonian prince, Niklot, who took up arms against his ambition, and who was offended, also,

by the zeal of the Saxon missionaries to convert him to Christianity, he completely defeated in 1160. Still, however, his wars with the Sclavonians did not cease, and in 1166, several of his other enemies, viz., the archbishop of Bremen, the bishops of Hildesheim and Halberstadt, and the margraves of Thuringia and Brandenburg, encouraged by the obstinacy of the barbarians in thwarting his projects, declared war against him. The duke, however, quickly defeated them, and the contest was finally terminated by an imperial decree in his favour, issued at Bamberg, in 1168.

About this time, Henry separated himself from his wife, Clementina, on account of conscientious scruples, and married Matilda, daughter of Henry II., of England. Shortly afterwards he undertook an expedition to Palestine, whence, on fulfilling his vow, he returned happily to Brunswick.

The period now approached when he was destined to meet in arms his friend, relation, and sovereign, Barbarossa. The causes of their rupture are variously given, but it is of little consequence to seek to determine them rigorously, since through the character of the two heroes, it could not have been finally avoided. It had only been so long delayed, because the Italian wars of Barbarossa, and the Sclavonian campaigns of the Lion, had hitherto kept their interests apart. Henry's pretexts of complaint were, that his uncle Guelph had been bribed to leave his Suabian possessions to the emperor, and that the latter had availed himself of a report of his death, which had been propagated during his expedition to the East, to obtain possession of his Saxon fortresses.

Nevertheless, he followed Barbarossa as his vassal, in his fourth Italian expedition. They conquered Susa together, but Alexandria, during a whole winter, withstood their assaults; and when an army of Lombards advanced to attack them, Henry announced the treasonable project of deserting the emperor, if the latter would not reward his services by an increase of territory. This Barbarossa refused, but embracing the duke's knees, he prayed him, for the honour of the empire, to stand by him at this critical juncture; but Henry was inexorable, and deserted.

A few days afterwards the weakened army of the emperor was completely routed by the Lombards at Legnano (May 29th, 1176). To answer for his treasonable desertion, the duke was summoned before the imperial diets at Rudolstadt and Goslar, and, on his non-appearance, was declared an outlaw. But whilst a decree was issued, which divided his possessions amongst his enemies, he was collecting an army to defend them. He defeated the archbishop of Cologne, who claimed Westphalia, and took the bishop of Halberstadt prisoner. Here, however, the tide of fortune turned against him; his subjects were terrified by the decree of outlawry, and when the imperial army made its appearance in the North, he was obliged to fly to Lubeck. The city of Brunswick alone was true to him, and for some time baffled all the besieging powers of the archbishop of Cologne. But all hope of effectual resistance having finally vanished, he petitioned the emperor for pardon in 1182; and could only obtain a promise, that his allodial possessions, Brunswick and Luneburg, should not be wrested from him, if he would atone for his fault by three years' exile. He was obliged to conform to these hard conditions, and went with all his family to the court of his father-in-law, Henry II., of England. He returned, however, at the expiration of two years, and lived in seclusion at Brunswick; but Barbarossa still refused to trust him, und demanded that he should either follow him to Palestine, or return for three more years to England. Henry chose the latter alternative; but hearing, shortly afterwards that it was the intention of his enemies no longer to respect even his allodial possessions, he again made his appearance in Germany. He quickly routed the Danes, who marched to oppose him, and conquered Hamburg, and Itzehoe. All the flourishing town of Bardwick, which refused him admission, he destroyed, excepting its cathedral, on the walls of which he engraved the frightful image of an Avenging Lion, with the inscription *Vestigia Leonis*, which remains to the present day. But here the stadtholder of Holstein interrupted his victorious career, and drove him, after a defeat, into the city of Brunswick, which, in conjunction with the bishops of Hildesheim and Halberstadt, Henry, son of Barbarossa, besieged, but without

success. At last, the archbishops of Mainz and Cologne intervened; a treaty was signed between the belligerent powers; and Henry promised to deliver up his sons as hostages. Nevertheless the quarrel continued till the marriage of Henry, the duke's nephew, with Agnes, niece of Barbarossa. This alliance effected a reconciliation between the Guelphs and the Hohenstauffen. Henry the Lion now took up his abode at his favourite city of Brunswick, where he spent his old age in collecting and studying ancient chronicles. He died in 1195, at the age of 66, and his hereditary possessions were divided between his two sons, Otho and William.

Barbarossa did not live to return from his crusade; he was drowned in Cicilia, in 1190, and buried at Antioch. His son and successor, Henry VI., after the reconciliation with Henry the Lion, and the re-establishment of peace in Northern Germany, marched southwards to the conquest of Naples, after having effected which, and whilst on the eve of invading Greece, he died suddenly at in Messina, 1197.

There were now two candidates for the imperial crown, Philip, brother of the late emperor, and Otho of Brunswick, son of Henry the Lion. The former was supported by all the south of Germany, and by the numerous enemies of the Guelphs in the North, and was crowned at Mühlhausen, in 1198. Otho relied for the support of his claim son his alliance with England and Denmark, on the decision of the pope, which was favourable to him, and on the assistance of Ottokar, king of Bohemia. A long and bloody contest ensued, greatly to the disadvantage of Otho; it was terminated by the death of Philip, who was murdered by Otho von Wittelsbach, at the castle of Babenburg, 1208. Otho now betrothed himself to Beatrice, the daughter of his rival, and fearful of the claims to the imperial throne of Frederic, son of Henry VI. and Constance of Naples, who resided at Palermo, he marched into Italy to enlist the pope on his side. He quarrelled, however, with the pontiff, who excommunicated him, and commanded all the German princes to elect Frederic, emperor. The latter entered Germany with only sixty followers, but such was the enthusiasm with which he was received, that he was shortly able to discomfit his opponent, who fled down the Rhine, and

Frederic was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1215. Otho died without issue at Brunswick in 1218, and was succeeded in his hereditary possessions by Henry, the count palatine, who dying without male issue in 1227, the succession devolved on the son of William, the third son of Henry the Lion, who was born at Winchester, and who had spent his early years in England. His father had bequeathed to him the cities of Lauenburg and Luneburg, and the chronicles of the day usually call him, the prince of Luneburg. In 1202, he married Helen of Denmark, by whom he had one son, Otho; he died, 1213, at the early age of twenty-nine. Otho, his successor, who was only two years old at his decease, was called all his life Otho the Child, partly because he assumed the reins of government in his hereditary possessions of Luneburg and Lauenburg at the early age of fourteen, and partly on account of his short and childlike stature. At the death of his uncle in 1227, he was engaged in a feud with the emperor, who disputed his succession to the fiefs of the latter; the young prince however, was successful and completely established his right. Shortly afterwards, in conjunction with the king of Denmark, he engaged in a war with Schwerin, Bremen, and Lubeck, which was terminated by the battle of Bornhoved, where, after a dreadful slaughter on both sides, the Dane and Guelph were defeated; the former lost an eye, and the latter was made prisoner and confined at Rostock, the capital of Schwerin. Upon hearing of this misfortune, the emperor determined to prosecute his former designs against Brunswick, and despatched an army for that purpose under the command of his son, the king of the Romans; but the fidelity of the Brunswickers rendered the expedition perfectly futile. At the death of the count of Schwerin, in 1228, Otho was liberated from confinement. On arriving at Brunswick, he renewed and confirmed the charters of that city, and greatly enlarged its privileges. In 1228, he married Matilda of Brandenburg, and, in 1230, we find him assisting Henry III. of England in a war against France. On his return to Germany, he set about the reformation of the religious orders, the profligacy of some of which was already notorious; in a letter still extant, dated March 15th, 1234, addressed to the abbot of Nordheim,

he reproves their abuses, and particularly enjoins the separation of the monks from the youthful nuns.

In 1235, in order to terminate the tedious disputes in which he had been long engaged with the emperor, he delivered up to the latter his allodial possessions, and received them from him again as fiefs. He was now proclaimed as Otho I. of Brunswick; his right to a tenth of the produce of the mines at Goslar was acknowledged, and he secured several privileges to his duchy. From this time is to be dated the modern political existence of Brunswick, inasmuch as it formed, hereafter, an integral part of the German empire. He now pacified the towns which still manifested any signs of the sedition that had formerly been fostered by the emperor, and suppressed the banditti who infested the country. In 1238, he joined the Teutonic order in combating the pagan Prussians, who had invaded the north-east of Germany, and destroyed the Christian churches; they were finally defeated at Balga, where the skill and courage of the duke of Brunswick mainly contributed to the victory. Otho, after having been involved in the quarrels of William, count of Holland, a pretender to the crown of Germany, who had married his daughter Elizabeth, died June 9th, 1252, in the fifty-first year of his age; he left four sons and five daughters.

Albert surnamed the Great, born 1236, succeeded his father as duke of Brunswick; the first measures of his reign were directed against his refractory vassals; he subdued the lords of Wolfenbüttel and joined their territory to Brunswick; several counts of Everstein he hanged, and incorporated their possessions with the principality of Göttingen. About the year 1265, this prince undertook an expedition to England, to assist Henry III. against the rebel earl of Leicester; he was present at the battle of Evesham, where the latter was defeated and slain. On his return to Germany, his brothers demanded of him a partition of their father's heritage, founding their claims on the Roman code, which did not acknowledge the right of primogeniture. Accordingly, he was sooner or later, compelled to invest all his brothers with different sovereignties: Otho was made bishop of Hildesheim; Conrad, archbishop of Verden; and John, duke of Luneburg

and Celle; thus all that Albert retained for himself was Wolfenbüttel, Calenberg, and Göttingen: the town of Brunswick remained common property.

Albert the Great, after having conquered the Elbe provinces of the count of Schwerin, and annexed Grubenhagen to his territories, died in 1279. During his reign, the provinces under his dominion became richer, more powerful and more civilized. Brunswick was added to the Hanse-Towns; commerce was encouraged, and the arts successfully cultivated. The great vices of the German middle ages, gluttony and gambling, were properly encountered by restrictive laws. The power of the clergy was limited, and the privileges of the monasteries curtailed. Many of the serfs were emancipated, and much was done towards ameliorating the condition of the rest. Numerous religious institutions were established, religious exercises were promoted, and at the same time that spirit of patriotism encouraged which is promptly intolerant of foreign interference. Albert left behind him six sons, of whom three entered into religious orders; between the other three his territories were divided; Henry, the eldest, obtained Grubenhagen; Albert, the second, Göttingen; and William, the third, Brunswick and Wolfenbüttel. These princes, however, as soon as they reached man's estate, commenced a war with each other respecting the partition, which led to no other result than that of filling them with mutual aversion and distrust. John, duke of Luneburg and Celle, died in 1277, and left an only son, Otho, who succeeded to the throne.

Albert, the second son of Albert the Great, carried on the succession of his family; he married a princess of Mecklenburg, by whom he had seven sons, and died in 1318. Two of his sons became bishops of Halberstadt and Hildesheim; two entered the Teutonic order; whilst the eldest and two youngest divided amongst them their father's territories. About this time, the last remnants of paganism, which had been obstinately, though secretly, adhered to in some parts of the country, were abolished in the dominions of the family of Brunswick.

During several centuries succeeding the period to which we are now arrived, the history of the Hanoverian countries is reduced

to little else but a list of the births and deaths of petty princes, a detail of perpetual divisions of territory, and an account of miserable feuds. As to the sovereigns of the different lines, and the dates of their decease: a description of the different divisions and successions is so dry and intricate, that we should not be able to render it intelligible in the brief space to which our limits confine us. We must here content ourselves, therefore, with only noticing the more illustrious descendants of the house of Guelph. The first noted character to whom we are led, in following the course of time, is Otho, who was prince of Grubenhagen in 1351. In his youth he had been a knight of the Teutonic order, which he quitted to travel through France and England. He subsequently entered into the service of the king of Bohemia, and fought under that sovereign at the battle of Cressy. We next find him at the head of the Guelphic army in Italy, where he was renowned from the brilliancy of his success against the Ghibellines. His courage was rewarded by the hand of Joanna, queen of Naples; but this union had a tragical termination; the count of Durazzo, who laid claim to the Neapolitan succession, envious of the German intruder, excited a portion of the people to take up arms in his cause. After several contests with various success, the royal pair were taken prisoners, the queen strangled, and the prince of Grubenhagen confined in the castle of Minorrano, whence, however, he escaped to Avignon. He subsequently returned to Naples, where he died in 1398.

In the year 1400, Frederick, duke of Brunswick, was chosen emperor of Germany; but before his coronation, he was murdered by the count of Waldeck, at the instigation of the archbishop of Mainz; and such was the lawless spirit of those times, that this atrocious deed was suffered to go unpunished.

The Reformation found several of its most zealous supporters amongst the princes of the house of Brunswick: Ernest, second son of Henry, duke of Luneburg, was the immediate disciple of Luther, and two of his brothers also embraced the reformed faith. But the other Guelphic princes, viz., Philip, duke of Grubenhagen, Henry, duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, and Erick,

duke of Calenberg and Göttingen, were only excited by these conversions to attach themselves more devotedly than before to the Catholic church. They refused to belie the ancient Guelphic devotion to Popish supremacy, and Henry, duke of Brunswick, became one of the most determined adversaries of the Reformation. All these princes were present at the diet at Worms, where Luther defended himself with memorable boldness before the emperor; and it was Ernest of Brunswick, who, after one of his most exhausting efforts of eloquence, ordered that a can of beer should be brought to refresh him. The dukes of Luneburg continued to support him in spite of the ban of the empire. Indeed, resistance to the new doctrines seemed to favour their propagation in the North; never did they spread so rapidly as when they were proscribed. Even the duke of Grubenhagen, and Erick of Calenberg and Göttingen, were compelled, in the course of time, to tolerate, and finally to profess them. The duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel alone resisted the tide of Protestantism, and lived and died a submissive adherent to the Catholic creed. This remarkable prince was at the head of the Catholic army, which was raised in 1537 to oppose the Protestant princes; he was several times defeated, and at last taken prisoner, with his son Victor, at Hockelem. He remained in confinement till 1547, when his adversaries received a terrible check at the battle of Mühlberg. On his liberation he determined to prosecute the religious war, but first marched against the predatory bands of the count of Mansfeld, who had invaded his territories; these he completely defeated, July 19, 1553, but lost in the combat two of his sons, and Maurice of Saxony, his ally. In another victory which he obtained shortly afterwards, his eldest son was also slain; one child was now all that remained to him—Julius, who was low of stature and deformed, and whom he suspected of attachment to the Protestant cause. Still, though strongly indisposed, he was constrained to make him his heir, since the emperor refused to acknowledge Eitel, his favourite illegitimate son. In his old age Henry's disposition seemed to become more pacific; he was, in a great measure reconciled to his son, and ceased to manifest violently his ancient antipathy to the Reformation. This prince

died in 1568. The beautiful Eva von Trott was his mistress, and by her he had seven illegitimate children. In order to keep his relation to her secret, he caused it to be spread abroad that she was dead, and attended a fictitious burial, in order to give foundation to the report; then, he removed her to the castle of Stauffenburg, where she lived in the greatest seclusion.

Meanwhile, the dukes of Luneburg showed themselves zealous Protestants, at home as well as in the camp. Luther's translation of the Scriptures they caused to be distributed throughout their dominions; and the Gospel was preached to their subjects in the German language. The most celebrated of these, Ernest the Confessor, duke of Celle, the common ancestor of the existing branches of the Brunswick family, was particularly indefatigable in promoting the spiritual and temporal welfare of his subjects. He instituted schools for the young, corrected the superstitious ceremonies of the church, and issued a code for the instruction of the clergy. But his physical frame did not correspond to the unwearied activity of his mind, and most aptly did his motto—*Aliis inserviendo meipsum consumo*—express his untimely fate; for in his fortieth year he presented all the signs of old age. He died in 1547.

Julius, who succeeded to the throne of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, had been, on account of his predilection for the Protestant cause, consigned by his father, at an early age, to the care of the Catholic priests, who condemned him to perpetual imprisonment as an incorrigible apostate; he escaped from confinement, however, and fled to Custrin, where he remained till he was recalled home by his relenting parent.

Immediately on mounting the throne, he established the Protestant religion, and with the assistance of the most celebrated divines, composed the *Corpus Doctrinæ Julii*, which was intended to serve, in future, as a constant rule of faith in the dominions of Wolfenbüttel.

This sovereign founded and endowed free-schools in his principal towns; repaired the roads at his own expence; rendered the river Ocker navigable by deepening its bed; and worked to great advantage the mines of the Harz. He died, May 3, 1589,

and was succeeded by his son, Henry Julius, one of the most learned men of his time. He was master of several languages, deeply versed in the sciences, and was perpetual rector of his own university of Helmstadt. The city of Brunswick, which had long been received into the Hanseatic league, had several times profited by the weakness and divisions of the Guelphic princes, so far as to establish a kind of independence; and its turbulent citizens so insulted Henry Julius, that he was obliged to lay siege to the place, which had nearly been brought to surrender, when his army was surprised and dispersed by a nocturnal attack of his adversaries. He, however, soon raised a second body of troops, blockaded the town again, and inundated it, by diverting the Ocker from its channel; still the town persevered in its rebellion, and the duke was obliged to raise the seige.

The Brunswickers were now no longer contented to remain on the defensive, and their mercenaries proceeded to ravage the territories of the duke; they even formed an ambuscade for the purpose of taking him prisoner. They were now put under the ban of the empire, the execution of which was intrusted to the duke, who, however, so managed the matter as to arrange their differences without proceeding to extremities. This prince died July 20, 1613.

Henry Julius was succeeded by his son, Frederick Ulrick, who, together with his brother Christian, bishop of Halberstadt, figures in the history of the Thirty Years' War. The bishop joined the celebrated count of Mansfeld, and took the field against the Catholics; in 1632, however, they separated, and the former, whilst marching to Darmstadt, was overtaken, and defeated, at Hoechst, near Frankfort, by the Catholic general, Tilly. At Darmstadt, to which place he escaped with his cavalry, he was rejoined by Mansfeld, and the two adventurers then marched into the Netherlands, where they fought against the Spaniards the battle of Fleurus, at which Christian lost an arm.

Shortly afterwards, he visited England, and quickly succeeded in convincing James I. of the necessity of supporting the drooping fortunes of the Protestant cause in Germany, and of assisting the elector-palatine, its champion, who had married the Princess

Elizabeth Stuart. A body of English troops was accordingly sent over to the north of Germany, and Christian was made one of its commanders.

By this time, the Catholic generals, Tilly and Wallenstein, had invaded the Brunswick territories, and made themselves masters of Odendorf and Calenberg. Mansfeld was defeated on the Elbe, by Wallenstein, and died shortly afterwards, a wanderer amongst the Bohemian mountains; but, amidst these misfortunes, Christian's constancy never wavered; he swore never to lay down his arms till the return of the elector-palatine to his former possessions; he reconquered Göttingen, Nordheim, and Minden, but his active career was arrested by a fever, which terminated in his death, July 6, 1626, when he was little more than twenty-seven years of age.

The Catholics were now everywhere successful until the appearance of Gustavus Adolphus, whom the princes of Brunswick were amongst the first to join, and to whom they faithfully adhered through every variety of fortune. The battle of Lutzen decided the war at length in their favour.

About this time, Augustus of Danneberg, grandson of Ernest the Confessor, greatly distinguished himself; he was an ardent lover and patron of science; he himself published several works under the name of Gustavus Selenus; and he founded the university of Wolfenbüttel. He had travelled much in his youth, and his maturer years he devoted to study. His son Anthony Ulrick, duke of Wolfenbüttel, was also celebrated for his learning, and is numbered amongst the bards of the Silesian school of poetry. His novels, "Aramena," in five vols., and "Octavia," in six vols., are interesting on account of the numerous anecdotes they contain of contemporary courts. In his seventy-seventh year, this prince deserted to the Catholic religion. His subjects did not reap those advantages from his government which they had a right to expect from his talents; he had an unfortunate predilection for French manners, and was inclined to splendid extravagance.

In 1658, Ernest Augustus, who was afterwards created elector of Hanover, married Sophia, youngest daughter of the elector-palatine and of the Princess Elizabeth Stuart; this celebrated

woman was born at the Hague, in 1630, and was the favourite of her widowed mother. Ernest Augustus enlarged and beautified his capital, Hanover, and built the palace of Herrenhausen. Unfortunately, from the mania which at that time prevailed for imitating the French, the electoral court manifested a too decided tendency to dissipation and extravagance; which, however, the Princess Sophia was zealous in counteracting, and from her excellent moral character and intellectual acquirements, she largely succeeded. She did not, however, escape the sorrow which such a state of society brings into the domestic circle. Her son, George Louis, who had married his cousin of Celle, for political purposes, devoted to her but little of his affection, and it was in vain that the electress set the neglected wife an example of patience and forbearance. Her brother-in-law, Philip, was the confidant of her griefs, and one of his friends, Count Koenigsmark, who sometimes saw her in his society, boasted of possessing a share of her affections. Whether he acted subsequently, as the agent of Philip, or whether he was himself the lover of the duchess, is not exactly known. Certain it is, that once, at least, he was admitted to the chamber of the latter at a very unseasonable hour: George Louis had been informed of the visit, and he posted soldiers at the door, who destroyed the count on his leaving the apartment of the princess. The latter was afterwards confined, for the remainder of her life, at the castle of Dahlen, which she only left, at rare intervals, to visit her parents at Celle. George Louis succeeded to the throne in 1698.

In 1701, the British parliament declared, that the electress Sophia, grand-daughter of James I., was heiress to the British crown, and the earl of Macclesfield announced the passing of the Act of Succession, to the princess, at Hanover.

In the war of the Spanish succession, the elector of Hanover joined the English against the French, and his brother Maximilian commanded Marlborough's cavalry at Blenheim. Shortly afterwards, the elector himself was appointed general of the imperial army, and at its head undertook a campaign against the French, whom he surprised and defeated, at Offenbach, Sept. 24, 1707. But to lead the old imperial army was a thankless office; men of

different countries, fighting for a cause which did not interest them personally, could not be brought to act zealously, or in unison; besides, the different states were slow in sending their contingents, and negligent in furnishing supplies. Accordingly, the elector resigned the command, and returned to Hanover, which he left four years afterwards, to ascend the British throne.

The last days of the electress Sophia were troubled by the cabals at the court of Queen Anne, and by the aversion of the latter, who declined a visit from her grandson (afterwards George II.), and affected to reprove her ambition. This excellent princess and admirable woman died June 8, 1714, a short time only before the accession of her son, George Louis, to the throne of Great Britain, which took place August 1, 1714.

George I. was far from neglecting the interests of the electorate of Hanover; on the contrary, it was a common accusation against him in England that he had them too much at heart. In 1715, he concluded a treaty with Denmark, by virtue of which the duchies of Bremen and Verden were definitively ceded to Hanover, in consideration of a certain equivalent in money. In the same year, in his electoral capacity, he declared war against Sweden; but the parties did not come to arms, and a treaty of peace was concluded between them, 1720. This sovereign died at Hanover in 1727; he left two children, George, who succeeded him on the throne, and a daughter, married to Frederic William, king of Prussia.

The accession of the house of Hanover to the throne of Great Britain, was the commencement of a new and flourishing æra for the electorate; a plurality of courts was no longer necessary; the country was burdened by no private debts of the sovereign; on the contrary, the greater part of the revenue from the domains was now devoted to the support of the army, and of the other institutions of the country. Taxes were never imposed without the consent of the states-general, which were composed of prelates, of the equestrian order, of nobles, and of magistrates, who represented the towns.

George II. succeeded his father in 1727: no war disturbed the first years of his reign, which were devoted in Hanover to im-

provements in the administration, and in the department of public instruction. Several public schools sprung into existence, and in 1737, by the advice of his minister Munchausen, he founded the university of Göttingen, the celebrity of which, during the last fifty years of the eighteenth century, reflected no little splendour on the government whose munificence had given it birth.

George II. took an active part in the first war which resulted from the invasion of Silesia by Frederic the Great; he espoused the cause of Maria Theresa; and by gaining the battle of Dettingen in 1743, contributed not a little to bring about a favourable termination of the contest, which, however, did not cease till 1748. In the next war which ensued, having been insulted by Austria and France, he took part against those powers, and entered into an alliance with the Prussian king. The duke of Cumberland, known all over Europe as the hero of Culloden, was sent to take the command of the Hanoverian forces; but he disappointed the hopes which were generally entertained of his success: he was attacked at Hastenbeck, and from some unaccountable precaution sounded a retreat before the battle was decided; so that the French, under the marquis D'Estrees, obtained an easy victory, and pursued him to take advantage of it. He shortly afterwards signed the disgraceful convention of Kloster Severn, by virtue of which, his soldiers laid down their arms, and Hanover remained in the possession of Richelieu, who had succeeded D'Estrees in the command of the French. Though this convention was subject to the ratification of England, which it, of course, did not receive, its immediate effects were tantamount to a complete conquest of Hanover, which, with all Westphalia, fell a prey to the avarice of Richelieu and the licentiousness of his soldiers; the former was called by his men, Father Plunder, and they might very justly be denominated his sons. The *Pavillon d'Hanovre*, which was erected on the Boulevards at Paris, received a part of the spoils, and served to commemorate the indignities of this worthless campaign. The triumph of the French, however, was of very short duration; on the 5th of November, 1757, they were completely defeated by the Prussians at Rossbach; and when Prince Ferdinand of

Brunswick took the field against them in Hanover, they were compelled to evacuate that country more precipitately than they had entered it. After this the war was carried on with various success; but the French never again obtained a permanent footing in the electorate; at length, the peace of Hubertsberg in 1763, restored tranquillity to Europe, without altering materially the extent of territory of any of the belligerent powers.

George II. died before the termination of the war, October 25, 1760; but it was vigorously prosecuted by his grandson and successor, George III.

During the thirty years which succeeded the Seven Years' War, Hanover, in common with the rest of Northern Germany, was not tardy in availing herself of the peace which was undisturbed during the whole of that period. The trade from England and America, through the Hanse Towns and the electorate to the south of Germany, flourished unremittingly till the time of the French war and blockade, when it attained a height, which had never before been even anticipated. A considerable portion of waste land was now brought under cultivation; the population increased at a rapid rate; and public instruction kept pace with industry and opulence.

Hanover was in this flourishing condition on the breaking out of the revolution in France; against which power its soldiers bore arms in all the campaigns after 1793: they were paid by England, and thus, a part of the burdens of war was removed from the shoulders of the Hanoverians. In 1801, in consequence of a misunderstanding between England and Prussia, the latter invaded and occupied Hanover, which, however, she was quickly compelled to restore to its legitimate government, though she retained Hildesheim, Corvey, and Hoxter: Hanover was partially indemnified by the acquisition of Osnaburg. On the re-commencement of the war against France, Napoleon ordered one of his generals, Mortier, to invade the electorate; when after a few skirmishes, the Hanoverian army retreated beyond the Elbe, and its generals concluded the ignoble convention of Artlenburg, July 5, 1803, by virtue of which they were to disband their troops, and consign the electorate unconditionally to

the discretion of the invaders. The court and ministers had already fled; and Mortier now appointed a commission for the execution of his mandates. The imposts alone, during the first half-year of the French government, amounted to four millions and a half of dollars; and a regular system of exaction was pursued both under Mortier, and his successor, Bernadotte, till, in 1806, the country was ceded by the French to Prussia, which promised to the Hanoverians "that protection and security for which they now looked in vain to the family of Brunswick." But this new arrangement was of very brief duration; for when the army of Prussia was completely defeated at Jena, October 14, 1806, it was deprived of Hanover, which was now divided into two parts, one of which was commanded by a French governor-general, and the other incorporated with the new kingdom of Westphalia. To this latter it was afterwards entirely annexed, in 1810; except that part lying North of the Elbe, which was made into a department of the French empire.

Under Jerome, the king of Westphalia, 18,000 troops were levied in Hanover, for the service of the French emperor; amongst whom were 3000 boys, between the ages of ten and fourteen. From 1803 to 1808, the French added five millions to the Hanoverian public debt. It is needless to say that the new government was cordially detested by the people, who were amongst the first to commence the great German liberation-war. Early in 1813, volunteers assembled on the Lower Elbe, and were indefatigable in attacking and harassing the French. On September 30 of the same year, Jerome fled from Hanover, which Bernadotte and the victorious allies entered on the 4th of November. Adolphus, duke of Cambridge, was now proclaimed governor-general of the electorate, which was soon afterwards raised to the rank of a kingdom, and the former ministers were re-instated in their respective offices. The greater part of the seignorial courts of justice were not re-established, and the most obnoxious of the taxes which had been imposed by the French, were instantly abolished.

According to an edict of 1814, the deputies were no longer to form provincial states-general, but were to be united into one

body; which was composed of ten deputies of the clergy, forty-three of the nobility, twenty-nine of the towns, and three of the holders of seignorial estates. Though the nobles thus formed the majority of the representatives, their privileges were very much curtailed; they were no longer exempt from taxation, and had now to serve in the army like other subjects of the state. The representative chamber, above-mentioned, was only provisional, and ceased to exist in 1819, when a new constitution was issued under a patent of the Prince Regent, who, in the succeeding year, ascended the thrones of Great Britain and Hanover, as George IV. By virtue of this constitution, the old provincial diets were again called into existence, and the general diet formed two chambers.

In the years 1828 and 1829, the distress and discontent which had for some time prevailed in some quarters in the kingdom of Hanover, increased to such a pitch that a manifestation of some sort appeared imminent. The popular complaints were of various kinds, and had their rise chiefly in inevitable circumstances: the commerce between the north and south of Germany to which the war had given great importance, began to droop at the peace; prices became gradually low, and gain less easy; the great temptation to smuggle, which was furnished by Napoleon's fiscal regulations, no longer existed; moreover, the government of the restoration furnished the agitators with pretexts for discontent, in adhering to the ancient routine of administration.

Be this as it may, on the 8th of January, 1831, about half a year after the accession of William IV., an insurrection broke out at Göttingen of the citizens and students, in spite of the garrison and of the academical senate. The rebel leaders issued a proclamation, enjoining their followers to remain armed in the cause of peace and order; a common-council was formed of citizens, to deliberate on the present posture of affairs; but the peculiar characteristic of this enterprise was, that it was intended to prosecute it without violent means. It was expected that the government would submit to the revolution, and not combat it: accordingly, the insurgents remained quite inactive, and whilst they were in arms against the government, abounded in pro-

testations of their loyalty and moderation. This mighty commotion had a very ludicrous termination: the rebels do not seem to have wished to catch even a glimpse of their enemies; and when, on the 16th of January, General Von Dem Busche entered the town at the head of 8000 men, most of the ringleaders had escaped, and on the following day tranquillity was fully re-established.

On the 26th of September, 1833, a new constitution for the kingdom of Hanover was ratified in London by King William IV. Its principal provisions were as follows:—the provincial diets were again acknowledged; the general diet was composed of two chambers, of which the first consisted of the princes of the royal family, of several mediatized princes and other noblemen, of prelates, of two of the chief Protestant clergy, of hereditary members named by the sovereign, of thirty-five deputies of the nobles, and of four persons appointed by the king. The second chamber consisted of three deputies of religious endowments, of whom two were to be Protestant clergymen; of three members appointed by the sovereign, on account of the general monasterial fund; of a deputy of the university, Göttingen; of two from the Protestant consistories; of one from the cathedral chapter at Hildesheim; of thirty-seven from different towns; and of thirty-eight from the peasants.

The deputies received, I believe, the sum of three dollars daily for their maintenance; they were entitled to this sum only when they actually took their seats. The total amount of this allowance to the deputies was so much as 60,000 dollars annually.

As the crown of Hanover only devolves upon male heirs, it is now no longer an appendage to the sovereign of Great Britain. It is satisfactory, now that the connexion is dissolved, to recollect that it has been an honourable one on both sides. The British sovereigns, in whose number the late excellent and beloved viceroy, the duke of Cambridge, especially deserves to be included, have ruled Hanover with a truly paternal spirit,—not appropriating its revenue to their own gratification, not conferring its posts upon foreigners;—while the Hanoverians have requited

them with a filial attachment, and have fought in their cause with courage and zeal.

The ruling family of Hanover is of the Protestant religion. The present king is Ernest Augustus, born June 5, 1771, who succeeded to the throne in June, 1837; he married, May 29, 1815, Frederika, princess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, the widow of the prince of Solms, by whom he has one son, Prince George, born May 27, 1819.

The following is a statistical view of the provinces of Hanover, and of their population.

	Area in Geographical Sq. Miles.	Population in 1833.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
1. Hanover	116.40	320,180	11	28	882	43,217
2. Hildesheim ...	81.50	352,196	20	14	587	49,373
3. Luneburg ...	203.02	303,114	12	26	1,685	39,126
4. Stade	125.41	241,142	4	23	1,049	38,731
5. Osnaburg.....	104.78	263,624	11	10	382	40,101
6. Aurich.....	54.03	153,671	5	7	345	25,776
7. Clausthal.....	9.14	28,573	7	—	45	2,827
Total	695.27	1,662,500	70	108	4,975	239,151

In 1835, there were 55,070 births, 37,752 deaths, and 13,088 marriages.

The principal towns are, Hanover (26,300 inhabitants), Hildesheim (13,800), Luneburg (12,500), Emden (12,000), Osnaburg (11,800), Göttingen (10,909), Celle (10,300), Clausthal (8859), Goslar (7164), Leer (6346), Hameln (5750), Norden (5600), Stade (5500), Eimbeck (5100).

The inhabitants, with the exception of the Jews, are all Germans. With respect to religion, they are divided as follows:— 1,342,850 are Lutherans, 210,000 are Catholics, 105,000 are of the Reformed church, 1850 are Herrnhutes and Mennonites, and 12,300 are Jews.

There are 10 Lutheran general-superintendantships, 94 Lutheran and Reformed inspectorships, 924 Lutheran and 114 Reformed congregations. There is 1 Catholic bishop, 143 Catholic congregations, 3 Mennonite and 1 Herrnhutes places of worship, and 9 Lutheran religious foundations for men, and 18 for women.

The educational institutions are, the university of Göttingen, at which there were 854 students in 1836; an academy for noblemen, a pedagogium, 16 gymnasiums, 20 middle schools, 5 seminaries, 1 institution for the deaf and dumb, 1 school of surgery, 2 veterinary schools, 6 schools of midwifery, and 3561 town and country schools.

At the end of 1826, there were 3426 teachers in the elementary schools, of whom 3085 were Protestants, and 341 Catholics: the number of children instructed was 214,524, who, in the different provinces, were in the following relation to the teachers:

In Aurich, there were	20,159	scholars and	295	teachers.
Hildesheim . .	46,211	.....	660	.....
Osnaburg . . .	31,593	.....	383	.....
Hanover . . .	44,944	.....	603	.....
Luneburg . . .	39,478	.....	827	.....
Stade	32,139	.....	638	.....

There are on the whole 13 prisons and houses of correction of different kinds.

The principal taxes in the kingdom of Hanover amount, annually, to 5,361,609 dollars, of which 2,335,009 are furnished by the royal chests, 3,006,600 by the land-chests. The revenue from the domains is 1,194,640 dollars, from mines and salt-works 117,000 dollars, from the customs 569,800 dollars, from the post-office 142,303 dollars, from the general chest 70,800 dollars, from the general salary-chest 112,000 dollars, from the land-tax chest and taxes 2,965,066 dollars; the immediate revenue from the land-tax chest is 20,000 dollars, and of the crown-endowment 150,000 dollars. The collective expenditure in the principal departments of the government amounts to 5,390,800 dollars annually; of which 2,373,490 are furnished by the royal chest, and 3,017,310 by the land-chests. The expenditure for the cabinet-ministry is 90,950 dollars, for the German chancery in London 14,490 dollars, for the land-drosteis 104,500 dollars, for the bailiwicks 513,850 dollars, for the diet 76,400 dollars, for the ministry of foreign affairs 70,000 dollars, for the ministry at war 1,657,950 dollars, for the ministry of justice 215,600 dollars, for the ministry of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs 97,650

dollars, for the ministry of the interior 651,000 dollars, for that of commerce 41,300 dollars, for that of finance 208,000 dollars, for the *Passiv-etat* 144,000 dollars, for pensions 144,000 dollars, for expenses about to cease 198,000 dollars.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 13,054 men. The composition of the army is as follows:—

	Men.	Horses.
First military Staff	15	
Two companies of Pioneers and Pontonniers	198	
Two horse companies and two foot battalions of Infantry, and one company of Workmen	1368	275
One regiment of Heavy Cavalry and three of Light Dragoons, twenty-four squadrons	3340	2444
Fourteen battalions of Infantry	15,580	
Total	20,501	2719

The government has lately made a material alteration in the institutions for military instruction. The general academy of state, the engineer and artillery school, as also the cavalry school, are to be combined in a military academy, which is to be erected at Hanover, and which is destined for officers of all arms.

The average number of inhabitants to the square mile in the kingdom of Hanover is 2365; but in the province of Luneburg there are only two-thirds of that number, and in that of Stade only four-fifths. The duchy of Aremberg Meppen, too, comprehending 36⅓ square miles, does not contain more than 48,816 inhabitants. These thinly populated districts form the largest plain, and greater half of the kingdom. The district of East Friesland contains 2905 inhabitants per square mile. Osnaburg is very unequally populated, in some parts there not being more than $\frac{7}{12}$ of the average number of inhabitants, in others, 7300 per square mile; for the entire province the number is 2167. The number for the province of Hanover, notwithstanding that it contains the capital, is not higher than 2686. In the principality of Hildesheim there are 4806; in that of Grubenhagen 4954; and in the neighbouring Harz only 2903 inhabitants per square mile.

In the mining-districts, $\frac{83}{100}$ of the population live in towns;

$\frac{23}{100}$ in Hildesheim; $\frac{10}{100}$ in Aurich; $\frac{15}{100}$ in Hanover; $\frac{13}{100}$ in Luneburg; $\frac{10}{100}$ in Osnaburg; and only $\frac{6}{100}$ in Stade. Thus the inhabitants of towns do not amount to quite a sixth of the entire mass.

The kingdom comprehends 14,589,813 *Calenberg morgens*, or acres, of which 8,075,182 are laid out in arable land, meadows, gardens, and woods, leaving 6,514,613 morgens for commons, uncultivated heaths, moors, lakes, rivers, and roads.

The cultivated land, including the woods, is in the following proportion to the whole territory, in the different provinces: in Hanover it amounts to $\frac{55}{100}$; in Hildesheim to $\frac{61}{100}$; in Luneburg to $\frac{52}{100}$; in Stade to $\frac{44}{100}$; in Osnaburg to $\frac{43}{100}$; in Aurich to $\frac{61}{100}$; and in the Harz to $\frac{62}{100}$.

In this calculation, the commons, on which, during the summer, 641,823 cows are, in a great measure, kept, are not reckoned as cultivated ground.

Of grass, arable, and garden-land, the proportion to each inhabitant is, in the Harz, half a morgen; in Hanover $3\frac{8}{120}$ morgens; in Hildesheim $2\frac{94}{120}$; in Luneburg $4\frac{104}{120}$; in Stade $4\frac{50}{120}$; in Osnaburg $2\frac{85}{120}$; and in Aurich $4\frac{44}{120}$; thus on an average there are $3\frac{66}{120}$ morgens of such land to each inhabitant, and of cultivated and uncultivated nearly nine morgens.

Of the entire cultivated territory, including the woods, $63\frac{6}{10}$ per cent. belongs to farmers; $6\frac{1}{10}$ per cent. to the possessors of fiefs and allodial estates; $1\frac{0}{10}$ per cent. to churches and schools; $17\frac{6}{10}$ per cent. to the crown; $9\frac{9}{10}$ per cent. to exchequers and parishes; and to the monasterial exchequer (*Klosterkammer*) $\frac{9}{10}$ per cent.

There are in Hanover 265,269 landed proprietors, and about nineteen times as many morgens of grass, garden, and arable land.

The exports are chiefly of corn and metals; in 1790, 8837 cwt. of lead was exported; in 1832, 70,744 cwt. In 1832, were also exported 9521 cwt. of bones, and 3657 of oil-cake.

The immensely increased importation of coffee is worthy of notice. In 1732, 500 lbs. only were sent from Bremen into Hanover; and in 1832 as much as 870,000 lbs. In 1834, were imported 50,000 cwt. of coffee, 50,000 cwt. of raw sugar,

47,167 cwt. of tobacco-leaves, and 11,736 cwt. of manufactured goods. It has been calculated that Hanover annually imports merchandise of the value of 8,000,000 of dollars.

The number of ships bearing the Hanoverian flag has increased considerably of late years. On the coast of East Friesland, from 1825 to 1836, were built 165 vessels of from 20 to more than 100 lasts. In 1835 alone, 45 large vessels were built. The province of Bremen with Hadeln had only two or three vessels in 1793; but in 1834 it had 54 ships of from 20 to more than 100 lasts. In 1827, 35 Hanoverian ships of more than 20 lasts, and 121 of less, entered the port of Hamburg; in 1835, 70 of more, and 209 of less than 20 lasts.

The export-trade is principally carried on by sea, excepting that in horses, oxen, some kinds of linen and salt. The coal-mines produce about 2,500,000 cubic feet of coal annually.

	In the Cities.	In the Towns.	In the Country.
The number of wood-merchants in 1830, was	71 ...	32 ...	298
Of shopkeepers - - -	2686 ...	1080 ...	4221
Of corn-dealers - -	29 ...	3 ...	13
Of dealers in linen - -	29 ..	25 ...	24
Of dealers in wool - -	6 ...	3 ...	31
Of dealers in cattle - -	372 ...	403 ...	2564

In 1834, 111,119 pieces of linen, of the value of 775,326 dollars, were exported from Hanover by way of Bremen.

The number of factory-workmen, properly so called, does not amount to more than 18,697; of whom, in 1824, 7026 were cloth-weavers.

On the whole, those engaged in trade amount to $\frac{6}{13}$ of the inhabitants of towns, and $\frac{2}{13}$ of those of the country; they consist of 25,026 families residing in towns, and 66,677 residing in the country*.

The Northern part of the kingdom of Hanover is divided into the Geestland and the Marschland: the former is either sand, covered with heath or furze, as in the principality of Luneburg, &c., or low moor, as in the duchy of Bremen. The marshy

* From Marcard's work, "Zur Beurtheilung des National Wohlstandes des Handels und der Gewerbe im Königreiche Hannover."—Hannover, 1836.

country lies in the direction of Hadeln, Kehdingen, &c. These districts are only preserved artificially from the encroachments of the sea. There are few hills in the North of Hanover; but in the South it is extremely mountainous. Many parts of Hanover abound in oxen of an excellent description: in 1820, there were in East Friesland alone 90,000 cows, and 50,000 oxen and steers. The same province is celebrated for its fine breed of horses, of which 5000 are exported annually to Italy. In the Harz, there are 60,000 goats, and also wolves, foxes, badgers, and wild cats. The villages contain 60,000 bee-hives, which, when the sweet-broom is in flower, are removed to, and tended on the heaths. There is plenty of corn, but of fruit, except in some places cherries and apples, very little. 20,000 rix-dollars' worth of bilberries are annually sent to Hamburg for the colouring of red wine. In East Friesland 6000 men are continually employed in digging and carrying turf. The chief mineral products of Hanover are, pit-salt (329,055 cwt. annually), saltpetre, coal, sulphur, marble, alabaster, iron, lead, copper, silver, gold (in very small quantity), zinc, arsenic, and cobalt.

The kingdom of Hanover is not celebrated for its manufactures, of which the principal are of cloth, tobacco, soap, cotton and iron-wares, at Hanover, and Minden; of linen, at Luneburg, Bremen, &c.; of sail-cloth, at Scharmbeck; of rope-work, at Markhausen; of lace, at Liebenau, &c.; of hats, at Minden, Osnaburg, &c.; and at various other places, of silks, leather, gloves, parchment, paper, wax, sugar, and oil. It is calculated that goods are annually manufactured in the kingdom of Hanover to the value of 6,000,000 rix-dollars.

The Hanoverians are for the most part of Saxon origin. In the North-Western provinces, however, there are Frieslanders; near Minden, some descendants of the Franks; Thuringians in the county of Hohenstein, Vandals on the Middle Elbe, and a few descendants of French refugees. They are, in general, strong and well-built, persevering and industrious. In many parts there are peasants possessed of considerable property, who display no small portion of pride, and who consider it discreditable to intermarry with families poorer than themselves. There

are tracts of country in the North, bordering on the Ems and Hase, where many of the inhabitants have never seen a town, and are very boorish and uncommunicative: the peasant of Southern Hanover is much better instructed and more sociable. Marriages and christenings are occasions of great feasting throughout the country. The Hanoverian agriculturists can scarcely be divided into different classes, being most of them both farmers and labourers: the richer amongst them indulge in very few luxuries, except in the duchy of Bremen, and Hadeln, where mahogany furniture is often found in their houses, and where they sometimes travel drawn by four beautiful Holstein horses. In these last-mentioned districts, the country-people are very hospitable and generous; they are also very tenacious of their rights, and strict observers of ancient customs. Beer is their favourite beverage, but many have wine in their cellars. They are fond of vegetables, but potatoes are more eaten in the towns than in he country. The national dishes are smoked goose, beef and raisins, and pork and dried fruit.

The administration of justice in the kingdom of Hanover is vested in a supreme court of appeal, composed of a president, two vice-presidents, and eighteen councillors, of whom, six are nominated by the king, and the rest by the provinces; in seven chanceries of justice, and finally in bailiffs, magistrates and patrimonial judges throughout the country, where it is combined with the ordinary administration.

Mention of the existence of the town of Hanover is first made in an edict of Henry the Lion, dated 1163; but the vases and urns which have been found in and near the town, prove that its site must have been inhabited at a much earlier period. The first mention of its commercial importance is in 1303, when it traded in cloth, skins, salt, butter, and herrings.

The richer Hanoverians appear to have viewed the Reformation with distrust: the first Protestant preacher was banished the town; and a second would have shared the same fate, had not a public disturbance taken place in his favour. This occurred in 1532; but in 1536 we find the inhabitants running into extremes on the side of the Reformers: death and confiscation of property

were the punishment of those who deserted after having once professed the Protestant doctrines; the Papists were punished with rods, and the Catholic revenues applied to the repair of the churches, and the support of the Lutheran ministry. Hanover escaped the devastations which were so common in Germany during the Thirty Years' War. Tilly appeared before its gates, November 5th, 1625, and demanded admission, but did not obtain it. During the reign of John Frederick the Catholic, who ascended the throne 1641, and of his successors, Hanover made great advances both in size and splendour; operas and plays were first introduced; masquerades became popular, and the French and Italians, who were invited in considerable numbers to court, encouraged gambling to a great extent.

Every person who possesses a house, or follows a trade, in Hanover, is a citizen, and is eligible to civic offices, enjoys common-right, and the right of sporting on certain estates. The citizens are divided into guilds and companies, which choose the burgomaster and syndicus, on whom it devolves to elect the other members of the magistracy; namely, six councillors, two camerarii, and a secretary. The magistracy has the town-police under its control, but in its regulations respecting the latter, it is bound to follow the directions of the government. There is a spiritual magistracy, composed of the six preachers of the three churches, of whom the eldest is president. These two magistracies decide on minor matrimonial disputes, of which the more important are referred to the royal consistorial court.

Respecting the provisions consumed here, we have no very recent data. According to a report of 1742, when the number of inhabitants was about half what it is at present, 2260 oxen were slaughtered, 11,701 calves, 5548 pigs, 481 sucking pigs, 5690 sheep, and 1969 lambs. The principal manufactures of Hanover are of gold and silver lace, leather, playing-cards, oil-cloth, earthenware stoves, tobacco, dyes, and stockings; but the only important objects of commerce are leather, linen, and worsted. The royal *Berghandlung*, for the produce of the Harz mines, is in this town; it has factors and correspondents in all the principal cities of Northern Germany and Holland. The

miners are bound to deliver all the produce of the mines, at a certain price, at the warehouses of this commercial establishment.

There are common schools attached to each of the three churches, to the support of the teachers of which, even should they send their children elsewhere, the parishioners are bound to contribute. In the highest class of the Lyceum, in which there are eight teachers, the pupil pays eleven dollars annually; in the lowest, five and a half.

For medical instruction, there is an anatomical college, founded by the surgeons of the town, and a museum. The royal library contains more than 90,000 volumes, chiefly on history and political law; it possesses all the books of Leibnitz, as well as a collection of rare tracts which he made at Berlin. Other establishments for the promotion of literature, science, and art, are, the library of the royal chancery of justice, of the magistracy, of the different churches, of the society of natural history, Gruner's mineral cabinet, Reussman's museum, the government and town archives, and the Walmoden gallery.

In 1804, a Bible Society was founded, of which the duke of Cambridge was the zealous protector: its revenue for three years, including a sum of 800*l.* from the British and Foreign Bible Society, has amounted to 10,000 dollars, with which sum it has distributed 11,000 copies of the Bible. The reading-rooms and circulating libraries here have been under the superintendance of a censor, since the time when the French propaganda awakened greater vigilance.

For the relief of the poor and their children there are considerable funds, and several institutions; but those who avail themselves of them, are obliged to make a public procession through the town twice a year. There are several hospitals, and a new one has lately been erected. One of the most remarkable public buildings at Hanover, is the temple to the memory of Leibnitz, consisting of a rotunda, of which the cupola is supported by twelve Ionic columns: in the centre is a colossal bust of Leibnitz, in white marble.

The climate of Hanover is not particularly good: moist and cloudy weather is far from uncommon: the plains on the North,

West, and East sides of the town, give full play to the winds from those quarters. The number of deaths is generally exceeded by that of births; but longevity is of rare occurrence.

The customs and way of life at Hanover, amongst the more wealthy, appear to be inclining more than formerly to German simplicity: French governesses are not so common; the women are growing more domesticated; and the division of time is more consistent with nature. Between the several classes of society there was formerly little communication; the first only admitted those received at court; the second, the lower nobility and higher officials, and so on to a fifth; but these rigorous distinctions are now dying away, and Zimmermann would scarcely call the present tone of Hanoverian society half Spanish and half German.

The principal popular amusements are sledge-racing in winter, and, in summer, shooting at the bull's eye. There is also a good theatre.

Göttingen is the seat of the most distinguished Protestant university of Germany, which has been ever nobly supported by the government. It is situated in the principality of the same name, on the New Leine, which is a canal of the river Leine: it contains 1200 houses, and 11,050 inhabitants, soldiers and students not included. It is celebrated for its university, to which are attached an admirable library, a valuable collection of coins, a museum, a collection of models, an observatory, a botanical garden, an anatomical theatre and museum, a chemical laboratory, a lying-in hospital, a riding-school, and fencing-school; with which we may mention the admirable museums of Blumenbach and Beermann. Göttingen has manufactories of linen and woollen articles, tobacco, leather, and saddlery; and is noted for its sausages. A grand jubilee was celebrated here in the autumn of 1837, in commemoration of the lapse of a century since the period of its first foundation, on which occasion a statue of William IV. was exposed to the public view; a great concourse of old students and learned men from all parts attended; the new king was present, and the whole ceremony passed off with joy and solemnity.

The number of students at the university of Göttingen, in

1837, was 901, amongst whom are three members of princely families, besides several noble ones. Of this number 522 are native Hanoverians, and 387 foreigners. They are thus divided —200 for theology, 362 for law, 224 for medicine, and 123 for philosophy. Since the commencement of the *second century* of the university, there has been an increase on the first half year of 22.

We cannot conclude our chapter on Hanover, without adverting to an event which is not as yet sufficiently developed to admit of substantial comment,—namely, the change in the constitution. As far as we can at present perceive, King Ernest returns to the Constitution of 1819, granted by George IV., and abandons the one more recently granted by William IV. in 1833.

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE DUCHY OF BRUNSWICK.

The History of Brunswick. The Ruling Family. Districts and Population. Mediatized Possessions of the Duke. Principal Towns. Religion. Religious Institutions. Educational Institutions. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Physical character of the Country. Products. Manufactures. Exports and Imports.

THE histories of Hanover and Brunswick are indissolubly connected to a very late period. In the year 1690, however, we find the territories of the present ducal family of Brunswick finally separated from those of the house of Hanover, and under the dominion of three princes; viz., Rudolf Augustus, duke of Brunswick; Anthony Ulrick, duke of Wolfenbüttel; and Ferdinand Albert, duke of Bevern. These duchies were finally united under Ferdinand Albert of Bevern, in 1735, who was succeeded, the same year, by his son Charles, whose excellent administration and admirable character secured him the lasting affection of his subjects. The Brunswick hospitals are prominent monuments of his benevolence; he was also the founder of the excellent school called the *Collegium Carolinum*. This prince died in 1780, and was succeeded by his son Charles William Ferdinand, whose name is celebrated in the history of the early German war against revolutionary France. This prince was one of the heroes of the Seven Years' War, and his uncommon bravery at the battles of Hastenbeck and Crefeld, gained him the applause and esteem of Frederic the Great.

On ascending the throne, he prosecuted the improvements of his father; protected and encouraged the cultivation of the arts and sciences, and was an active advocate of the education of his people. Subsequently, he accepted the command of the imperial

army against France, which he held until 1794, fighting with various success, but always with the same zeal and intrepidity. He now devoted himself exclusively to the welfare of his duchy till the year 1806, when the fatal day of Jena found him at his post, and when he received the wounds of which he died shortly afterwards at Altona, November 10, 1806.

Leopold, the brother of this unfortunate prince, cannot be passed over unnoticed, on account of his singular benevolence and philanthropy. He was educated by two of the most extraordinary men of his time, Jerusalem and Lessing, the latter of whom accompanied him on his travels. After having for some time borne arms in the Prussian service, he took up his abode at Frankfort on the Oder, where he lived in the constant practice of charity and benevolence. He was the father of the poor, whose cottages he loved to visit; at fires or inundations, he was always the first to rescue those in danger, and combat the progress of the calamity. He was drowned in attempting to save the lives of some fellow-creatures. Several monuments at Frankfort transmit to posterity a knowledge of the love and veneration with which he was regarded by his grateful contemporaries.

William Ferdinand was succeeded by his youngest son, Frederic William, who, however, did not enter upon the government till the year 1813, as even before the death of his father the duchy had been occupied by Napoleon, and was shortly afterwards incorporated with the new kingdom of Westphalia. In the mean time, he took an active part in all the wars against France, and was made prisoner with Blucher's corps at Lubeck, in 1806. On his liberation he retired to Bruchsal, where, in 1808, he lost his duchess, the Princess Elizabeth of Baden, by whom he had two sons, Charles and William, the present dukes of Brunswick. In 1809, he commenced the heroic career, to which his name chiefly owes its glory: at the head of a gallant body of soldiers, he commenced an unremitting war against his adversaries, nothing daunted by their numerical superiority. He forced his way through Westphalia, to the shores of the Baltic, and then took ship for Spain, where he fought in the British ranks till 1813: then he returned to Brunswick covered with

glory, but was quickly recalled to the field of action by Napoleon's return from Elba, in 1815; on the 16th of June of which year, the hero fell at Quatre-Bras.

A regency was now appointed in the duchy of Brunswick, which carried on the government till the majority of Duke Charles, in 1823. One of the first acts of this prince, on his accession to the throne, was to reproach his guardians with a declaration that his minority had been unjustly prolonged; he then rendered himself very obnoxious to his subjects by various arbitrary proceedings. In 1830 he visited France, and returned to Brunswick, August 30; when, instead of taking measures to allay the irritation which prevailed there, he recalled the soldiers who had leave of absence, and placed cannon in the streets. Shortly afterwards, the duke was besieged in his palace by the populace, whom his hussars did not succeed in dispersing till late at night. On the 7th of September another tumult took place, and the duke, being in imminent danger, fled, accompanied by a few soldiers. The mob now set fire to the palace, which, with all that it contained, was entirely consumed.

The next day a national guard was formed, and a deputation sent to Duke William, the younger brother, praying him to accept the crown. He entered the town shortly afterwards, surrounded by the authorities, and welcomed by the people. One of his first acts was to dissolve the late ministry, and to convoke the states-general, and having been acknowledged by the relatives of his house, and empowered by the Diet at Frankfort to retain his authority, he was proclaimed ruling duke of Brunswick, April 25, 1831*.

The ruling family of Brunswick is of the Lutheran religion. The present duke is William, born April 25, 1806, who, after the flight of his brother Charles, ascended the throne September 28, 1830.

* These particulars relative to the revolution of Brunswick, are taken from the Staats Lexikon of Rotteck and Welcker (article *Braunschweig*), but as this is a recent piece of history, the actors still alive, and no variety of authorities exist to be consulted, we have omitted several passages and phrases extremely severe.

The following is a view of the districts of the duchy and of their population:—

	Area in Geog. Sq. Miles.	Population in 1833.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
1. Wolfenbüttel	21·71	108,000	3	—	182	12,200
2. Schoningen	13·66	40,000	3	2	73	4,300
3. Harz	14·35	41,000	2	5	78	4,650
4. Weser	13·21	37,000	2	4	70	4,050
5. Blankenburg	8·04	20,000	2	4	64	2,500
Total	70·97	246,000	12	15	467	27,700

The population in 1832 amounted to 245,783, according to the official returns; and there were 41,609 families. About one-third of the territory is covered with wood.

The present duke possesses, as mediatized territory, in Prussian Silesia, the principality of Oels, which contains 37.^{88} square miles, and 90,000 inhabitants, eight towns, one market-town, and 337 villages: the revenue of this principality is 170,000 florins.

The principal towns are, Brunswick (35,340 inhabitants), Wolfenbuttel (8310), and Helmstedt (6273). With the exception of the Jews, all the inhabitants are Germans: 242,700 are Lutherans, 2500 Catholics, 100 Herrnhuters, and 1400 Jews.

There are seven Lutheran general superintendantships, 29 superintendantships: 238 parishes, and 398 churches and chapels: three Catholic congregations, and one synagogue.

The educational institutions are, a lyceum, two pedagogiums, six gymnasiums, 63 town and 369 village schools.

The direct taxes produce here, 1,264,894 dollars, the indirect taxes, 1,108,624 dollars. The entire revenue is 3,056,082 dollars, at which sum the expenditure for 1836 was fixed. The cost of the army is 860,278 dollars; 464,535 dollars go to paying off the public debt. The revenues of monasteries and endowed schools pay the expenses of the church and of public instruction.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 2096 men. The army consists of 1625 infantry, 299 horse, and 172 pioneers.

The form of government is monarchical and representative. The diet is composed of two chambers, or sections, of which the

higher consists of six prelates, and the proprietors of 78 seignorial estates; the lower, of six prelates, 19 deputies of towns, and 19 of the other landed proprietors. Females are excluded from the succession, but only as long as a male representative of the ruling family exists.

The Northern part of the duchy of Brunswick is an undulating plain with very slight elevations; the Southern districts are composed of the mountains of the Harz. In the North, the soil is extremely fertile, but in the South, the greater part of it is sterile and stony.

The principal products are corn, beans, buck-wheat, turnip-seed, poppies, potatoes, chicory (125,000 cwt.), tobacco (7000 cwt.), flax, a staple commodity (84,000 cwt.), hops, not for their excellence (8000 cwt.), and wood. The duchy contains 87,000 oxen, 51,000 horses, 110 mules and asses, 259,000 sheep, 8300 goats, 47,000 pigs, a great quantity of poultry, and 10,500 bee-hives.

The mineral kingdom in Brunswick affords lime, plaster of Paris, marble, alabaster, pipe-clay, jasper, chalcedony, granite and porphyry, salt, saltpetre, coal, sulphur, asphaltus, iron (62,000 cwt.), silver, copper, lead, quicksilver, arsenic, zinc, and cobalt.

There are manufactures of woollen and linen goods, of paper, leather, tobacco, chicory, soap, and mineral acids.

The principal exports are of worsted, linen, corn, linseed-oil, chicory, leather goods, wood, hops, glass-paper, wool, tobacco, soap, tallow, hemp, and flax. The imports are spices, East and West Indian goods, raw material, fish, ornamental articles, butter, cheese, cattle, and horses.

CHAPTER XXV.

THE KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG.

The Ruling Family. Circles and Population. Principal Towns. Religion. Educational Institutions. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Ministers and Officers of the Court. Births and Deaths. Emigration. Premature Marriages.

A PRIOR of Schulstein, living at Prague, conceived the happy idea of forming schools in which pupils should learn, independently of other usual branches of study, the application of the sciences to practical purposes, or arts. In the year 1777 a Polytechnic School, or School of Arts, is said to have been first founded at Prague. There is no want of schools in which literature is taught, but these schools of the arts are still comparatively rare, and particularly in our own country.

The kingdom of Wurtemberg has the distinction of standing at the head of all the countries of Europe in this respect; and it is on this account that we commence our sketch of its statistics with the display of a feature so honourable to the governors, and so useful to the governed. In 1815, there were already in this small kingdom so many as 260 schools of art or of industry, which were frequented by 10,000 pupils; and, in 1825, the number of these institutions had increased to 324, and the pupils amounted to 14,000.

The royal family of Wurtemberg is of the Lutheran religion. The reigning prince is William I., born September 27, 1781, who succeeded his father, Frederick I., October 30, 1816. He has been married three times, firstly, to Charlotte Augusta, princess of Bavaria, from whom he was separated in 1814, and who is now dowager empress of Austria; secondly, to Catherina Pawlowna, a Russian princess, who died January 9, 1819; and, thirdly, to Pauline, princess of Wurtemberg. He has four daughters and one son by his second wife; the latter, Frederick, the crown prince, was born March 6, 1823. The king has

one brother, Paul, who is married to Charlotte, a princess of Saxe-Altenburg, by whom he has two sons and two daughters. The elder of the latter, Helena, born 1807, is married to the grand-prince, Michael of Russia; and the younger, Pauline, born 1810, to the duke of Nassau. The king has also three uncles living, who have numerous descendants.

The following is a view of the circles and of their population:—

	Area in Geog. Sq. Miles.	Population 1833.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Hamlets, Farm-houses, and Odd Houses.
Neckar circle	61·50	439,978	37	57	300	691
Black Forest	87·80	424,933	37	42	429	1068
Danube	110·80	367,446	28	51	427	3868
Jaxt	100·20	355,691	30	71	302	2212
Total	360·40	1,588,048	132	221	1458	7839

The principal towns are, Stuttgart (35,000 inhabitants, including soldiers and strangers), Ulm (12,139), Heilbronn (10,500), Reutlingen (10,400), Tübingen (7227), Esslingen (6475), Hall (6220), Ludwigsburg (6208), Rothenburg (6057), Gmünd (5822).

Altogether there are 132 towns; 1211 villages with livings, and 462 other villages; 125 hamlets with livings, and 2901 other hamlets; 2644 farm-yards; 2177 odd houses; and 1888 parishes.

With the exception of the Jews, all the inhabitants are Germans. With respect to religion they are divided as follows: 1,087,413 are Protestants, 489,025 are Catholics, 10,766 Jews, and 210 of other creeds.

There are in this country 6 general-superintendantships, 50 Lutheran inspectorships, 818 Lutheran parishes, 8 parishes of the Reformed church, 1 Catholic general vicariate, 6 Catholic monasteries, 645 Catholic parishes. The value of the Lutheran church property is 27½ millions of florins. The revenue of this church is 1,975,548 florins; the expenditure 1,421,624 florins.

The Wurtemberg university is that of Tübingen, at which, in 1836, there were 624 students. There are also 5 gymnasiums of the first class, 2 lyceums, 59 Latin schools, 1 Catholic convic-

torium, 5 Catholic classical schools, 5 lower Lutheran schools, 12 *Real* schools, 1400 Lutheran schools for the people (*Volksschulen*), 787 Catholic ditto, 1 agricultural institution, 7 schools of art and drawing, 1 veterinary school, and 1 institution for the deaf and dumb.

The yearly expenditure from 1836 to 1839 is fixed at 9,321,813 florins.

The following are the principal items :—

	Florins.
Civil List of the King	850,000
Interest, &c., of the National Debt	1,296,858
The Army	1,902,848
The Church and Public Instruction	2,249,275
Administration of Justice	710,558
Administration of Finance	718,821

The revenue amounts to 9,321,813 florins, of which 3,995,068 florins are contributed by the royal domains, and 5,366,745 florins by direct and indirect taxation.

The public debt, in January, 1836, was 25,573,007 florins.

The standing army consists, in time of war, of 16,824 men, in time of peace, of 4906 men, and is divided as follows :—

Infantry	2928	Artillery	394
Cavalry	1024	Sappers	36
Horse-guards	132	Train	96
Chasseurs	96	Garrison	200

The army thus composed forms 4 regiments of cavalry, a squadron of chasseurs, a body-guard of cavalry; 8 regiments of infantry of the line, several garrison-companies, and a corps of invalids; 1 regiment of artillery (i. e. 1 battalion of horse, and 1 of foot, with a train), and a division of garrison-artillery.

The government is an hereditary limited monarchy, founded on the constitution of September 25, 1819. The representatives, who form two chambers, have a share in legislation, and in the distribution of taxes, but the king is the only executive power. According to the family-law (*Hausgesetz*) of January 1, 1808, the crown is hereditary to the exclusion of females; but should no male representative exist, females are admitted to the succession.

The crown-prince is of age at eighteen, the other royal princes and the princesses at twenty-one, and the remaining members of the royal family at twenty-two. Appanages, jointures, and dowries, can never consist of landed property, but must be paid out of the treasury.

There are the usual ministers of foreign affairs, war, justice, finance, and of home affairs, with ecclesiastical affairs, and public instruction.

The privy-council is composed of some of the ministers, of privy-councillors, and of state councillors.

The grand dignitaries of the crown are an hereditary grand marshal of the kingdom, an hereditary grand master of the kingdom, an hereditary grand chamberlain of the kingdom, and a banneret of the kingdom.

The supreme council of the court is composed of a grand master of the court, of a grand equerry, of a president of the chamber of the court, and of a grand chamberlain.

During the space of fifteen years, the number of births in the kingdom of Wurtemberg has surpassed that of deaths by 183,977. During the years 1812, 1813, and 1814, 17,840 couples were married; 81,139 boys, and 77,118 girls were born, which is 27,046 boys, and 25,706 girls, on an average, annually.

During the same space of time, there were 8684 illegitimate male births, and 8513 illegitimate female births, which give together an annual average of 5732. There died in the above years 71,789 males, and 68,114 females, in all 139,903;—an annual average of 23,930 men, and 22,705 women. From 1815 to 1829 inclusive, there were born 429,914 boys, and 406,417 girls; on an average annually, 28,661 boys, and 27,094 girls; there were 1567 more boys than girls born on an average annually. Of the 429,914 boys, 50,162 were illegitimate, and of the girls 48,307, in all 98,469; on an average annually, 3344 boys and 3221 girls, in all 6565.

In the course of these same 15 years, there died 334,487 men, and 317,867 women, in all 652,354;—an annual average of 22,299 men and 21,191 women, in all 43,490 annually.

In the years 1813 and 1814, 746 strangers (315 men, and 431

women) settled in this kingdom, and 733 persons (214 men, and 519 women) emigrated. It is probable, that the greater part both of the settlers and emigrants were servants. From 1815 to 1829 inclusive, 4218 men and 5637 women settled in the country, altogether 9855. In the same years, 15,555 men and 15,868 women, altogether 31,423 persons emigrated. This great increase of emigration is explained by the advantages which the United States offer to poor, if industrious settlers.

Thus during these fifteen years, though the births had exceeded the deaths by 183,977, the actual increase of the population was only 162,409.

Prostitutes are not supposed to exist in the eye of the law, and no official superintendance of them exists.

No man is allowed to marry until his twenty-fifth year, on account of his military duties, unless permission has been specially obtained or purchased: at that age he must also obtain permission, which is granted on proof that he and his wife will have together sufficient means to maintain a family, or to establish themselves; namely, in large towns, from 800 to 1000 florins, and in smaller ones, from 400 to 500,—and, in villages, 200 florins. They must not be persons of disorderly or dissolute lives, drunkards, or under suspicion of crime; and they must not have received any assistance from their parish within the last three years.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN.

The Ruling Family. Circles and Population. Principal Towns. Religion. Educational Institutions. Religious Institutions. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Ministers of Government and Officers of the Court. Criminal and Legal Statistics. Miscellanies.

THE ruling family of Baden is of the Protestant religion. The present grand duke is Leopold, (C. F.) who was born August 29, 1790, and who succeeded his half-brother, Lewis, March 30, 1830. He was married, July 25, 1819, to his cousin, Sophia, daughter of Gustavus IV., king of Sweden. They have six children, four sons and two daughters; Lewis, the heir-apparent, was born August 15, 1824. The grand duke has two brothers, Maximilian and William, both of whom are in the army, and a sister, Amelia, married to the prince of Furstenberg; his half-brother, Charles Lewis, who died in 1801, left a daughter, Caroline, who is now the dowager-queen of Bavaria, and a son Charles, who was grand duke, and who was married to Stephanie, Mad. de Beauharnois, the adopted daughter of Napoleon; he died December 8, 1818. The offspring of this marriage are, Louisa, born June 5, 1811, married to the prince Gustavus Wasa, the crown-prince of Sweden; Josephine, married to Charles, prince of Hohenzollern Sigmaringen; and Maria, born October 11, 1817.

The following is a view of the circles of the grand duchy of Baden, and of their population:—

	Area in Geographical Sq. Miles.	Bailiwicks.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Country Parishes.	Protestants.	Catholics.	Mennonites.	Jews.	Total Population in 1831.
Seekreis - - -	55·04	19	21	4	362	16,189	165,909	105	1,266	173,469
Upper Rhine Kreis	70·14	18	28	10	434	89,983	229,669	159	3,174	322,985
Middle ditto - -	91·13	21	30	13	369	146,356	252,345	303	5,817	404,821
Lower ditto - -	63·23	20	27	14	320	135,002	162,407	847	9,166	307,422
Total - -	279·54	78	106	41	1485	377,530	810,330	1414	19,423	1,208,697

The principal towns are, Carlsruhe, the capital (21,249 inhabitants, Mannheim (20,584), Freiburg (12,206), Heidelberg (11,811), Bruchsal (7137), Pforzheim (6259), Lahr (5599), Rastadt (5516), and Constance (5220).

The inhabitants are all Germans, with the exception of the Jews, and of 520 French. The numbers of the various religious denominations are given in the foregoing table.

There are two universities, at Heidelberg and Freiburg; at that of Heidelberg, in the winter of 1834, there were 580 students; viz., 38 students of theology; 238 of law; 222 of medicine, surgery, and pharmacy; 58 of political economy and mineralogy; and 24 of philosophy and philology. At the university of Freiburg, in 1834-5, there were 445 students.

In the Baden Protestant church, there are 28 dioceses, 28 deaneries, and 318 parishes. Of the Catholic church, there is 1 archbishop, cathedral-chapter, and episcopal ordinariat; there are 35 land-chapters, 35 deaneries, and 723 parishes. In this country, there are 4 lyceums, 6 gymnasiums, 6 pedagogiums, 14 Latin schools, 8 seminaries for females, 1 evangelical and 1 Catholic seminary for schoolmasters, 1 institution for the deaf and dumb, 1 veterinary school, 1 polytechnical and 1 trade school, and a military academy.

The net annual revenue of the grand duchy for the years 1835 and 1836, was 7,905,091 florins.

The public debt amounted, in 1831, to 13,263,390 florins.

In November, 1833, 1,602,042 florins, 30 kreutzers, paper-money, which had been called in between June 1, 1832, and May 31, 1833, were destroyed.

In 1833, the sum devoted to paying off the national debt amounted to 889,869 florins; in 1834, to 892,038 florins.

The standing army contains 10,412 men, and is divided into 1 division, or 8 battalions of infantry, 8045 men, and 1 brigade of cavalry, or 3 regiments of dragoons, 1518 men. The contingent to the army of the confederation is 10,000 men.

The present form of government is an hereditary, constitutional monarchy, established by the deed of August 22, 1831. There are two chambers of representatives, to the first of which, no person

is eligible, who is not twenty-five years of age, and to the second, none who is not thirty years of age. All candidates must be of the Christian religion. Candidates for a seat in the second chamber, must prove that they are either in possession of a capital of 10,000 florins, or that they are in the receipt of an annual income of 1500 florins. Every citizen, and every person filling a civil office, has the right of voting for a member of the diet, who is chosen for eight years.

Females are excluded from succession to the throne, so long as there exists a male representative of the ruling family.

There are the usual ministers of state. Each circle has a director, who resides in its chief town. There is a director of the forests and mines, and another of the domains, a third of the taxes, and a fourth of the supreme chamber of accounts. The post-office is also under the superintendance of a director. Besides these, there are directors of the Evangelical church-section, and of the Catholic church-section.

The officers of the court are a grand master of the court, a grand chamberlain, a grand marshal, a marshal of the court, an intendant of the domains of the court, and an intendant of the court-music and of the court-theatre.

The number of law-suits has of late years very much increased in Baden. In 1814, there were 1674; in 1833, 2994. In 1833, 1131 trials were decided in the criminal courts, and sentence was pronounced upon 1629 persons, of whom 673 were acquitted, and 956 declared guilty of the charges brought against them. Of the latter, 7 were condemned to death, and all executed, with the exception of one, who committed suicide; but in 1830, all those who were condemned to death, 8 in number, had their sentences commuted to imprisonment. 206 of the persons convicted, were condemned to imprisonment; 10 for more than 15 years, and 30 for less than a year; the others for different intermediate periods. 129 of the culprits were condemned to labour at public works in a particular dress, and three to hard imprisonment. On the whole, 338 persons were punished by imprisonment or hard labour, and 611 by lighter inflictions. The proportion of persons tried for criminal offences to the whole population,

was that of 1 to 748; of those punished, 1 to 1275. Of those tried, 13·5 per cent. were females; of those punished, 14 per cent.

In 1833, 5·7 per cent. of those tried, and 6·2 of those convicted, were between 14 and 18 years of age; 48 per cent. of the prisoners, and 50 per cent. of the convicts, were between 18 and 30; 23·28 per cent. of the prisoners, and 21·65 per cent. of the convicts, were between 30 and 40; 13 per cent. of the prisoners, and 11·82 per cent of the convicts, between 40 and 50; 6·50 per cent. of the prisoners, and 6·25 per cent. of the convicts, between 50 and 60; and 2 per cent. of the former, and 2 of the latter, between 60 and 70.

Of the whole number of convicts in 1830, 35 per cent. were Protestants, 63·5 per cent. Catholics, and 1·5 per cent. Jews. Of the 1629 persons tried, 1056 were either bachelors or widowers, 986 had no trade or profession, 1178 were totally without, and 142 were possessed of property. 54 persons were moving in respectable society; and of these, 22 were convicted, and 6 condemned to imprisonment and hard labour. 15 persons were tried for political offences.

In the year 1833, in the courts of the bailiwicks, 3055 persons were tried, 639 acquitted, and 2416 convicted. Of the whole number 333 were women, of whom 83 were acquitted, and 250 condemned. In the same year, there were 1050 offences committed, of which the perpetrators have not yet been discovered; of these, 162 were burglaries, 13 street-robberies, and 3 murders. There were 67 suicides, besides 7 attempts at suicide, and 164 deaths from accident.

Prostitutes are not tolerated by the police in Baden, in any places except Mannheim and Carlsruhe, the principal cities, and also at Baden, the much-frequented mineral spring, during its season. They are visited by an official surgeon once a week, and the police is charged to maintain a vigilant superintendance over them.

According to Schnabel, the population of this country increases annually at the rate of 1 per cent.; according to Stein, and his editor Hörschelmann, the increase is nearly 1½ per cent. annually.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE ELECTORATE OF HESSE-CASSEL.

The Ruling Family. Provinces and Population; Principal Towns. Religion. Educational Institutions. Budget; Army. Form of Government; Ministers and Officers of the Court.

THE ruling family of the electorate of Hesse is of the reformed religion. The present prince elector and grand duke is William II., born July 28, 1777, married 1797, to Augusta, princess of Prussia, who succeeded to the throne, February 27, 1821. His children are, Caroline, born 1799; Frederic William, prince elector, co-regent since October 1, 1831, born August 20, 1802, united, in morganatic marriage, to the countess of Schaumburg; and Maria, married to the duke of Saxe-Meiningen. The prince elector has two sisters, Maria Frederica, now dowager-duchess of Anhalt-Bernburg, and Caroline, now dowager-duchess of Saxe-Gotha. He has also two uncles, Charles, landgrave, Danish field-marshal, and stadtholder of the provinces of Sleswick and Holstein; and Frederic, landgrave, a Hessian general of infantry, both of whom have several descendants. Among the offspring of the Landgrave Frederic, are two distinguished ladies—the grand duchess of Cambridge, and the grand duchess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.

The following is a view of the provinces of the electorate, and of their population.

	Area in Geog. Sq. Miles.	Population in 1832.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
Lower Hesse	98·30	325,765	34	8	519	48,196
Upper Hesse	41·25	113,837	16	4	206	15,562
Fulda	41·95	128,584	5	7	198	17,063
Hanau.....	27·50	109,663	7	14	189	14,845
Total.....	208·00	677,849	62	33	1,112	95,666

The principal towns are, Cassel (29,931 inhabitants, not includ-

ing soldiers), Hanau (14,834), Fulda (9764), Marburg (7512), Hersfeld (6343).

With the exception of the Jews, and of 2700 persons of French extraction, all the inhabitants are Germans. According to the Weimar *Almanach* of 1837, 618,349 of the inhabitants are of the evangelical confession, 103,000 are Catholics, 8300 Jews, and 260 Mennonites; this sum considerably exceeds the whole population above stated.

There are 1 general superintendantship, 4 superintendantships, 3 inspectorships, 41 classes, 291 Protestant parishes, of which 19 are French, 1 Catholic bishop, 63 Catholic parishes, and 18 synagogues.

The university at Marburg numbered, in 1833, 422 students. There is 1 lyceum, 1 pedagogium, 6 gymnasiums, 1 episcopal seminary, 3 seminaries for schoolmasters, 2 academies for drawing and painting, 2 institutions for foresters, and 63 town-schools.

	Dollars.	Gro.
The Expenditure for the Finance-Period of 1834–36, was	3,258,212	16
The Revenue for the same period - - - - -	3,069,540	0
Deficit - -	188,672	16

The public debt amounts to 1,900,000 florins.

The army is composed of 2 brigades of infantry, 2 regiments of cavalry, 1 horse and 2 foot batteries of artillery, and 1 company of pioneers and workmen. The contingent to the army of the confederation is 5679 men.

The government is monarchical and representative. The representatives form only one chamber. The constitution was granted January 5, 1831. The crown is hereditary, to the exclusion of females; the law (*Hausgesetz*) of March 4, 1817, regulates the family affairs of the grand-ducal house.

The members of the state-ministry are the ministers of finance, of war, of foreign affairs, of justice, and the interior, the director of the grand state-chest (*Hauptstaatskasse*), and two ministerial councillors.

The chief officers of court are a grand marshal of the court, an intendant-general of the theatre, a grand huntsman and chamberlain, a marshal of the court and chamber, a grand equerry and chamberlain, and a captain of the palace and chamberlain.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE GRAND DUCHY OF HESSE-DARMSTADT.

Ruling Family. Provinces and Population. Cultivation. Division of Wooded Property. Principal Towns. Religion. Educational Institutions. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Ministers and Officers of Court.

The ruling family of the grand duchy of Hesse is of the Lutheran religion. The present grand duke is Lewis II., who was born December 26, 1777, and who succeeded his father, Lewis I., April 6, 1830; he was married June 19, 1804, to Wilhelmina, princess of Baden, who died in 1836. His children are, Lewis, the heir-apparent, born June 9, 1806, married to Matilda, princess of Bavaria; Charles, betrothed to the princess Elizabeth, niece of the king of Prussia; and Alexander and Maria. He has three brothers living, George, Frederic, and Emile.

The following is a view of the provinces of the grand duchy, and of their population.

	Area in Geographical Sq. Miles.	Population, in 1832.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages and Hamlets.	Houses.
Starkenburg	58·67	256,745	22	24	382	32,493
Rhine Hesse	27·18	189,986	10	12	168	26,929
Upper Hesse	91·45	271,642	34	13	510	44,666
Total	177·30	718,373	66	49	1060	104,088

At the end of 1834, the entire population amounted to 760,694.

The following is a view of the country, with respect to its cultivation, the calculation being made in *morgens* (acres), of which there are 22,018 in a square mile.

	Ploughed Land.	Meadow.	Pasture.	Vinery.	Garden.	Wood.	Total of Cultivated Ground.
Starkenburg ...	506,740	119,496	15,541	2,863	340	492,903	1,137,883
Rhine Hesse...	427,093	35,784	4,595	35,136	2,575	21,523	514,706
Upper Hesse...	655,801	238,128	14,051	174	859	566,984	1,475,997
Total.....	1,589,634	381,408	34,187	38,173	3,774	1,081,410	3,128,586

The farm-buildings, roads, and uncultivated ground occupy, in the three provinces, 234,663½ *morgens*.

The following table shows how the woods of this country are divided amongst the various classes:—

	Ducal Property.	Noble, and Patrimonial Estates.	Private Property.	Parish Property.
Starkenburg	119,514	71,045	70,900	231,444
Upper Hesse	215,849	151,852	24,111	176,172
Morgens	334,363	222,897	95,011	407,616

The principal towns are, Mainz, (31,000 inhabitants), Darmstadt (24,500), Worms (8000), Offenbach (8000), Giessen (7000).

The inhabitants are all Germans, with the exception of the Jews, and of 2400 French.

With respect to religious differences, they are divided in the three provinces as follows:—

	Protestants.	Catholics.	Mennonites.	Jews.
Starkenburg	177,732	71,425	70	7,518
Rhine Hesse	87,695	93,764	871	7,329
Upper Hesse	251,260	12,699	354	7,327
Total	516,687	177,888	1,295	22,174

There are 3 superintendantships of the Protestant church, 41 deaneries, and 421 parishes. Of the Catholic church, there are 1 bishop, 17 deaneries, and 146 parishes.

There is 1 university at Giessen, which numbered in 1834-5, 292 students. There is an institution for foresters, a philological seminary, an episcopal seminary, 7 gymnasiums, 2 seminaries for

schoolmasters, 4 *real*-schools, a military academy, and a school for midwives. There are 16 schools of industry, and there is at least one school in every parish.

During the three years 1833—1835, the annual revenue was 6,576,106 florins, including a sum of 166,648 florins from the fund of reserve.

The expenditure was the same as the income; amongst its items, the expense of the grand-ducal house and court was 762,877 florins, in which is included the civil list of the grand duke, amounting to 581,000 florins; the civil list of the heir-apparent was 60,000 florins.

At the end of 1834, the public debt amounted to 11,564,377 florins, and according to the calculations of the minister of finance, was to be reduced, at the end of 1835, to 10,235,845 florins.

The following table shows the strength and state of the army:

			Time of War.		Time of Peace.
1. *a.* General Staff			6	...	6
b. Company of Sappers			90	...	61
2. Cavalry. One Regiment of Light Horse			1328	...	908
3. Artillery:					
a. Staff	8	8	640	..	348
b. Horsemen	67	57			
c. Foot Artillery	226	162			
d. Drivers	339	121			
4. Four Regiments of Infantry of the Line			7405	...	4965
Total			9469	...	6288

The contingent to the army of the confederation is 6195 men.

The government is a constitutional and hereditary monarchy, founded on the charter of Dec. 17, 1820. Females are excluded from the succession, so long as there is a male representative of the ruling family whose claims are founded on relationship or *Erbverbrüderung*. The representatives of the people form two chambers.

The ministers are, a directing minister (*dirigirender minister*), a minister of foreign affairs, and of the grand-ducal house, a

minister of the interior, and of justice, a minister of finance, and a president of the war department.

The state-council is composed of two princes of the ruling family, of several of the ministers, of state-councillors, and of members who are elected for a year.

The chief officers of court are, a grand court-marshal, a grand chamberlain, a grand equerry, a grand master of the court, and a grand master of the ceremonies.

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE LANDGRAVIATE OF HESSE-HOMBURG.

Ruling Family. Provinces and Population. Towns. Religion. Private Property of the Landgrave. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Minister. Officers of the Court.

This small state lies in the neighbourhood of Frankfort on the Rhine, and has been latterly augmented in its domains through the friendship of Austria. It is chiefly interesting to the Englishman, as the residence of one of the most amiable of the daughters of George III., who married the late landgrave, a distinguished soldier. The present landgrave is Louis William Frederic, born in 1770, who succeeded to the throne in 1829. He married, in 1804, Augusta, princess of Nassau-Usingen, from whom he was separated the succeeding year. He has no children, but several brothers and sisters: his brother Frederic Joseph, the late landgrave, was the husband of our Princess Elizabeth.

The area of this state comprises $7^{\cdot 84}$ German square miles, of which $2^{\cdot 25}$ are in the lordship of Homburg, and $5^{\cdot 59}$ in the lordship of Meisenheim. The population is 24,000; 8800 souls are in Homburg, and 15,200 in Meisenheim. There are 3 towns, 1 market town, 31 villages, 27 hamlets, and 3270 houses. The inhabitants are composed of 20,730 Germans, 1200 French and Walloons, and 1050 Jews. In 1826, there were 14,000 members of the reformed church, 6000 Lutherans, and 3000 Catholics. The capital, Homburg, contains 3600 inhabitants; the town of Meisenheim, 2000. The landgrave is proprietor of the bailiwicks of Winningen, Hötensleben, and Oebisfelde in Prussian Saxony, and of some other private estates.

The revenue is 180,000 florins, to which the Prussian bailiwicks contribute 34,000. The public debt amounts to 450,000

florins. The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 200 men.

The government is a pure monarchy. The landgrave belongs to the second principal line of the house of Hesse, by the family-laws of which he is bound. In respect to the succession, the law of primogeniture obtains. The ruling family is of the Lutheran religion.

The only minister of importance is entitled director of the government.

The chief officer of court is a grand equerry, who also performs the functions of marshal.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE DUCHY OF NASSAU.

Ruling Family. Provinces and Population. Cultivation. Births and Deaths in 1833. *Principal Towns. Religion. Educational Institutions. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Ministers and Officers of the Court.*

THE ducal house of Nassau is of the Reformed church. The present duke is William, born June 14, 1792; he succeeded to the throne of Nassau-Weilburg in January, 1816, and to that of Nassau-Usingen in March, of the same year. He married, firstly, Louisa, princess of Saxe-Hildburghausen, who died in 1825, and, secondly, Pauline, daughter of Prince Paul of Wurtemberg. He has seven children, three sons, and four daughters. Adolphus, the crown-prince, was born July 24, 1817.

The duke has one brother, Frederic, who is in the Austrian army, and three aunts, viz., Louisa, dowager princess of Reuss-Greitz, Amelia, dowager princess of Anhalt-Bernburg-Schaumburg, and Henrietta, widow of Duke Lewis of Wurtemberg.

The area of this duchy, not including the streams of all sizes, is 82·7 German square miles.

With respect to cultivation, the land is divided as follows:—6545 morgens (*acres*) are occupied by farm-yards; 7473 are gardens; 702,004 are ploughed land; 196,120 are meadows; 15,543 are vineries; 1251 are ponds; 736,377 are woods; 106,981 are *triechsland* and pasturage; 40,247 are uncultivated, or are occupied by roads, &c.

In 1833, there were 12,942 births, of which 6690 were males, and 6252 females; 9063 persons died, *i. e.*, 4557 males, and 4506 females. There were 3367 marriages.

The principal towns are, Wisbaden, which contains 9004 inhabitants, and Biberich, which contains 2859. The inhabitants are

all Germans, with the exception of the Jews, and of a few descendants of French Protestants. With respect to religion, 196,387 of the inhabitants are Protestants, 167,800 Catholics, 184 Mennonites, and 6003 Jews.

There is one bishop of the Protestant church, 20 deaneries, 178 parishes, and one theological seminary (at Herborn). Of the Catholic church, there are one bishop, and one episcopal commissariat, 15 deaneries, 133 parishes, and one theological seminary (at Limburg).

There are three pedagogiums in Nassau, one gymnasium, one seminary for schoolmasters, one institution for the deaf and dumb, one agricultural school, two *Real*-schools, and one military academy. There are 658 school-districts, in which there are 844 teachers. Mr. James, in his work on the educational institutions of Germany, states that, in 1833, 66,535 scholars were instructed in the schools of these districts, while about 500 youths were educated in the higher government establishments, and a considerable number in the private schools of Nassau, amongst which are some of the best in Germany. This gives an average of about one scholar to six of the population, 77 scholars to each teacher, and 98 scholars to each school.

The annual revenue of the duchy is 1,810,000 florins. The public debt amounts to 5,000,000 florins. The debt of the domains, at the end of 1830, was 7,217,154 florins.

The army consists of two regiments of infantry, one battalion of artillery, half a company of pioneers, one battalion of reserve, one garrison, and one drill company.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 3028 men.

The government is monarchical and constitutional. The representatives are divided into two benches, the rights and privileges of which are established by the constitution of 1817. The succession is hereditary, to the exclusion of females.

The ministry of state is composed of a minister of state, and of three ministerial councillors. The council of state consists, at present, of the grand huntsman, the ex-president of the supreme court of appeal, the chief of the war department, the director-general of the taxes, the vice-president of the chamber of accounts,

the president of the country government, the president and vice-president of the supreme court of appeal.

The chief officers of court are, a grand huntsman, a grand chamberlain, a grand equerry, and a marshal of the court.

The following is a view of the bailiwicks of the duchy, and of their population :—

	Area in Acres.	Population.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
Braubach	47,843	10,532	2	2	15	1,714
Diez	70,448	13,790	2	—	39	2,201
Dillenburg	92,235	15,724	2	—	30	2,788
Eltville	41,313	11,845	1	1	8	1,610
Hachenburg	71,881	11,003	1	—	53	1,782
Hadamar	58,578	16,464	1	—	28	2,639
Herborn	98,436	14,593	2	—	40	2,570
Hochheim	48,372	12,141	1	1	15	2,111
Höchst	46,038	14,945	2	2	16	2,160
Idstein	92,400	16,072	2	3	29	2,698
Königstein	59,748	14,408	3	1	21	2,235
Langenschwalbach	69,993	10,793	1	—	33	1,750
Limburg	49,940	14,352	1	1	17	2,237
Marienberg	44,125	8,165	—	—	43	1,322
Montabaur	65,627	15,875	1	—	38	2,450
Nassau	66,354	11,298	1	3	28	1,887
Nastätten	65,719	10,925	1	3	32	1,827
Reichelsheim	4,921	1,327	—	1	1	241
Rennerhod	57,338	13,404	—	1	34	2,171
Rüdesheim	57,435	12,137	1	3	10	1,663
Runkel	53,017	12,225	1	1	20	2,007
St. Goarshausen	54,787	10,711	2	1	23	1,918
Selters	73,537	14,876	—	2	50	2,475
Usingen	125,515	19,938	1	2	47	3,327
Wallmerod	59,527	13,271	—	2	63	2,247
Wehen	83,949	9,584	—	—	35	1,494
Weilburg	94,428	16,725	1	4	36	2,769
Wiesbaden	55,727	19,246	1	2	12	2,338
Total	1,812,541	370,374	31	36	816	58,631

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE GRAND DUCHY OF SAXE-WEIMAR-EISENACH.

Ruling Family. Provinces and Population. Principal Towns. Religion. Educational Institutions. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Ministers. Diet. Officers of the Court.

THE grand-ducal house of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach is of the Lutheran religion. The present grand duke is Charles Frederick, born February 2, 1783, who succeeded his father, Charles Augustus, June 14, 1828. He was married, August 3, 1804, to Maria, a princess of the Russian imperial family. He has three children, Maria, born 1808, married to Prince Charles of Prussia; Augusta, born 1811, married to Prince William of Prussia; and Charles, the heir-apparent, born June 24, 1818. The duke has one brother, Bernard, born May 30, 1792, a lieutenant-general in the service of Holland, who was married in 1816 to Ida, princess of Saxe-Meiningen, by whom he has six children, four sons and two daughters.

The following is a view of the provinces of this duchy, and of their population :—

	Area in Geog. Sq. Miles.	Population 1835.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.
Principality of Weimar.....	45·93	163,317	25	4	486
a. Jena and Weimar Circle	—	119,648	19	4	300
b. Neustadt.....	—	43,669	6	—	186
Principality of Eisenach	20·89	77,729	8	8	129½
Total	66·82	241,046	33	12	615½

Of the entire population, 118,474 are males, and 122,572 females: 82,219 persons are married, 2945 live on alms, and 311 are deaf and dumb. There are 718 persons of more than 80 years of age.

The principal towns are, Weimar (11,000 inhabitants), Eisenach (9270), and Jena (5792).

With the exception of the Jews, all the inhabitants are

Germans. With respect to religion they are thus divided:—229,576 are Protestants, 9956 Catholics, and 1416 Jews.

There are 2 Protestant general-superintendantships, 24 dioceses, and 294 parishes. There are 10 Catholic parishes and one dean.

The university at Jena numbered 522 students in 1833. There are 2 gymnasiums, 69 town-schools, 543 country-schools, 2 seminaries for schoolmasters, 2 drawing academies, 1 institution for foresters, 1 school of art, 2 free trade-schools, and 2 schools for midwives.

The yearly expenditure for the years 1836, 1837, and 1838 has been fixed at 637,636 dollars, 7 groschen, $1\frac{7}{24}$ pfennigs.

The principal heads are as follows:—

	Dol.	Gr.	Pf.
Salaries of Officials	103,899	18	$0\frac{3}{8}$
Costs of Administration	30,550	17	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Extraordinary expenditure in extra-salaries and pensions, &c.	92,084	13	$10\frac{1}{4}$
Contributions to the church and schools	41,830	19	$10\frac{3}{8}$
Establishments and institutions of general utility	22,795	5	0
The Diet	3,400	0	0
The Army	99,000	0	0
*Laufender Etappen-Aufwand**	1,000	0	0
Interest, &c., of the Public Debt	170,000	0	0
Tax-gathering	33,741	7	$3\frac{1}{2}$
The introduction and administration of the customs, and brandy-tax	22,584	15	1
Agio-loss and extras	34,300	0	0
For the Reserve-fund	6,000	0	0

The revenue amounts to 749,845 dollars, 1 groschen, and $7\frac{6}{7}$ pfennigs, but if we add to this, the revenue of the domains, which amounts in round numbers to 680,000 dollars, the entire revenue of the duchy is, 1,429,845 dollars, 1 groschen, and $7\frac{6}{7}$ pfennigs.

The principal items of the revenue are the following:—

	Dol.	Gr.	Pf.
Balance in hand (*Kassen-vorrath*)	110,000	0	0
Old land-tax	162,094	12	$6\frac{1}{2}$
The Customs	154,694	19	$6\frac{3}{8}$

* Meaning unknown.

	Dol.	Gr.	Pf.
Compound taxes	2,624	18	7⅝
Tax on brandy	79,367	21	3⅛
Produce of the salt-works, card-monopoly, malting-houses, tobacco-fields, and vineries	86,399	13	6
Universal direct tax on land and incomes	151,034	5	2⅞
Agio-gain, and fines, rents, and etceteras	3,629	6	11

The public debt amounts to 3,500,000 dollars; the exchequer (*Kammer*) debt to 1,000,000 dollars.

The army consists of 1 regiment of infantry, and 1 corps of hussars. The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 2010 men.

The government is monarchical and constitutional; the representatives form only one chamber. The grand duke, who is the head of the Ernestinian house of Saxony, has several rights in common with its other princes, with whom, and the king of Saxony, he is also united by a family contract (*Hausverband*). Females are excluded from the succession, which is hereditary.

The ministry of state consists of the minister of justice, home affairs, foreign affairs, police, ecclesiastical affairs, public instruction and war; of the minister of finance, of a privy-councillor, and of two referendaries; consequently, of only five persons.

The diet consists of 31 deputies, of whom, 1 is chosen by the University of Jena, 1 by the mediatized nobles: the possessors of seignorial estates choose 9; the towns 10; and the peasants 10.

The chief officers of court are, a grand chamberlain, 2 grand equerries, a grand huntsman, a grand marshal, a grand cupbearer, and a grand mistress of the court of her imperial highness the grand duchess.

This small state has acquired celebrity throughout the civilized world, from the home which it afforded to the most eminent of the German writers; for this advantage it was indebted to the wise liberality of the reigning family, who, in securing the presence of Herder, Goethe, and Schiller, conferred the most substantial benefits on their subjects, and in every sense, enriched them.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE DUCHY OF SAXE-COBURG-GOTHA.

Ruling Family. Provinces and Population. Principal Towns. Educational Institutions. Budget. Form of Government. Ministers. Administration of Justice. Officers of the Court. Sketch of the recent History of this Duchy. Physical Character of the Country; Products; Manufactures; Exports. The Town of Coburg. The Town of Gotha. Fortunes of the Reigning Family.

Coburg is a country which has been as yet little visited by travellers, because it does not lie in the course of the great roads; but the fine scenery, the unsophisticated and original old German tone of manners, the economical mode of living, and the celebrity of its reigning family, will probably gradually attract many strangers.

The ducal house of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha is of the Lutheran religion. The reigning duke is Ernest, born January 2, 1784, who succeeded to the throne, December 9, 1806. He was married, first, to Louisa, princess of Saxe-Gotha, from whom he was separated in 1826, and who died in 1832, and, secondly, in 1832, to Maria, daughter of the late Duke Alexander of Wurtemberg. He has two sons: Ernest, the heir apparent, born June 21, 1818; and Albert, born the succeeding year. Of his two sisters, Julia, married to Prince Constantine of Russia, from whom she was divorced in 1820, is dead; the other is Victoria, duchess of Kent, born August 17, 1786: he has also two brothers, Ferdinand, born 1785, and Leopold, king of the Belgians, born 1790. The former has three sons and one daughter; the eldest son, Ferdinand, is married to Donna Maria, queen of Portugal.

The following is a view of the provinces of the duchy and of their population:—

	Area in Geog. Sq. Miles.	Population, 1832.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
Principality of Coburg.	9·50	38,000	4	4	271	5,700
Principality of Gotha..	28·10	92,231	5	6¼	158	18,250
	37·60	130,231	9	10¼	429	23,950

According to the latest census, the entire population amounts to 131,861.

The principal towns are, Gotha (13,006 inhabitants), and Coburg (9067). With the exception of the Jews, all the inhabitants are Germans, and all are Lutherans, except 2000 Catholics and 1000 Jews.

In this duchy, there are three gymnasiums and classical schools, one academical gymnasium, two seminaries for schoolmasters, one ladies' school (at Coburg), 35 town schools, and 300 village schools.

The revenue is 1,100,000 florins. The public debt amounts to 3,000,000 florins. The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 1366 men.

The government is a constitutional monarchy: the representatives form one chamber only. Gotha, however, has still its old diet (three classes in one chamber). The qualification to vote for a deputy of the nobles is constituted by the possession of a seignorial estate *(Rittergut)*. For the deputies of towns, every citizen is entitled to vote who has never been a bankrupt, and who has not been punished for transgression of the laws.

In the villages, the householders form the constituency. The deputies must be of the Christian religion, citizens of the state, thirty years of age, and men of unblemished reputation. Those of the towns and villages must have either an estate free from incumbrances, worth 5000 florins, or an annual income of 400 florins. Officers of the government appointed for the purpose, superintend the election of the knights and of the citizens; in the villages, the elections are superintended by the ordinary officials.

The ministry is composed of one minister of state, and of three privy-councillors.

The highest court of justice is the supreme court of appeal; the lower courts are the colleges of justice at Coburg and Gotha; and finally, throughout the country, justice is administered by bailiffs, magistrates, and patrimonial judges.

The chief officers of the court are, a first marshal of the court, and a grand equerry.

The present duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, was formerly duke

of Saxe-Coburg and Saalfeld, but, in 1826, he ceded the latter, and obtained the duchy of Gotha, with the exception of the lordship of Kranichfeld. After this change of territory, one of the first acts of his government was the creation of a privy-council, consisting of the officers of government both in Coburg and Gotha. A decree of October 30, 1828, established in each duchy a separate college of justice, which takes cognizance of matrimonial matters, formerly falling under the jurisdiction of the consistorial court. Each duchy has its own system of internal administration, taxation and excise. On the other hand, for both Coburg and Gotha, there is only one high consistorial court for ecclesiastical affairs and for public instruction, and only one war-office. According to the new regulations, the fees which were formerly claimed by the officials are now the property of the state. In 1830, a journal was established for the more prompt promulgation of laws and edicts. On the 1st of July, 1829, the army was re-organized, so that the soldiers of both duchies (1366 in number) were made to form one infantry regiment of the line, divided into two battalions.

The funds for the preservation and increase of the books, pictures, and coins at Gotha, have been lately enlarged. The government has particularly distinguished itself in encouraging trade and commerce. Monopolies were abolished in Coburg, so early as 1812; in Gotha, in 1829. Exhibitions of home products, and trade schools, have been established; and all impediments to commerce have been removed.

The French revolution of 1830, produced a temporary sensation in Coburg and Gotha, which led to no important results. But in the distant principality of Lichtenberg, which had been ceded to the duke, by the congress of Vienna, in 1816, its effects were such as not only to disquiet the inhabitants, but also to weaken the moral force of the government. Awakened by these circumstances to a sense of the difficulty of governing a separate territory, inhabited by a restless population, the duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha has since sold the principality of Lichtenberg to the king of Prussia.

In this duchy, no preference is given to birth in electing

officers of state. Difference of religion does not affect the equal enjoyment of political rights. Every citizen is bound to serve for a certain period in the army, should he be chosen by lot, or to find a substitute. No citizen can remain in arrest for the space of twenty-four hours without being informed of the cause of his apprehension.

The territories of the duke of Gotha lie in Thuringia; they are extremely fertile, well cultivated, and thickly populated. Agriculture is their principal source of prosperity. The northern districts are plains, intersected by chains of hills; the south is mountainous and woody.

The principal products are corn, potatoes, carrots, and other vegetables, flax, poppies, aniseed, woad, and an immense quantity of wood, which is the staple article. A few hops are grown; there is not much fruit, and the wine is only made for vinegar. There are plenty of pigs and poultry, but the horses are of an inferior breed. The country contains mines of iron, manganese, coal and slate. There are numerous worsted-spinners and linen-weavers, particularly in the hilly districts. There are also woollen and cotton manufactories, but they are not very numerous. Other articles of manufacture are, iron-ware, wire, copper goods, stockings, tobacco, glue, leather, and soap. There are five paper-mills, three porcelain, and three hardware manufactories.

The exports are corn, wood, wool, woad, manganese, pitch, potash, bilberries, coriander-seeds, aniseed, butter, linen, iron goods, sausages, and livers of geese.

Coburg, the capital of the principality of Coburg, and formerly the residence of the duke, is situated in a delightful country; it contains more than 800 houses, and about 9000 inhabitants. One of the most prominent public buildings is the palace of Ehrenburg, in which the present duke has made large improvements. It now contains a library, a cabinet of natural history, of medals and prints, and an armoury. In the neighbourhood of the town is the castle of Coburg, which contains a workhouse, and a house of correction. In the town itself is a gymnasium, supplied with a library, with specimens of natural history, and medals. There are a senate house, an orphan

asylum, a casino, an armoury, and a government house, built in an Italian style of architecture. Amongst the curiosities of the place are Luther's room, which contains some beautiful wood-work, and the alabaster monument of Duke John Frederic, in the church of St. Maurice. The principal places of amusement are the theatre, the casino, the redoute, and the musical club. In the neighbourhood, are the beautiful old and new walks, the ruins of the castles of Callenberg and Lauterburg, and the lovely seat of the duke, the Rosenau.

Gotha, the capital of the duchy of Gotha, and also a residence of the present duke, contains about 1300 houses, and 13,000 inhabitants. The palace of Friedenstein contains a very good library, a collection of coins, a museum of natural history, a Chinese cabinet, a picture gallery, and remarkable collections made by the late duke,—the whole forming a treasure of literature and art, such as few moderate towns can boast of. In 1824, the museum which was given to the country by the late duke, Frederic, was opened. The ducal libraries contain 150,000 volumes. The walls and fortifications of the town have been changed into ornamental walks. Near the town is the observatory on the Seeberg, 1189 feet above the level of the sea. In the neighbourhood, too, is the palace of Friedreichsthal, containing some valuable monuments of Italian art, and the Orangery and Park, where the Dukes Ernest and Augustus are buried.

The chief places of amusement and public resort here, are the theatre, ball-rooms, and public gardens. In the neighbourhood of Gotha are, two ducal palaces, and the Moravian colony of Neudietendorf.

The house of Saxe-Coburg is indisputably the most fortunate of all the existing great families of Europe. No common lot has attended them in our time, and they appear destined to fill a remarkable place in modern history. The reigning duke has succeeded to the inheritance of the duchy of Saxe-Gotha, which he enjoys in addition to his original sovereignty of Coburg. His brother, Leopold, was born under an extraordinary star; he first married the heiress to the British throne, and subsequently a daughter of the king of the French; two ladies not

less amiable than elevated; and, after declining the throne of Greece, he has been chosen king of Belgium. One sister espoused the Archduke Constantine of Russia, and thus in the ordinary course of events would have become empress of all the Russias. The history of another sister, the duchess of Kent, is too well known to require comment; she is the mother of the queen of England. Another brother has married one of the greatest heiresses of the Austrian empire, the daughter of the prince of Kohary, and occupies the high post of lieutenant field-marshal, in the service of the emperor. Finally, a nephew of the duchess of Kent is the reigning king of Portugal. An impartial review of the progress of this distinguished family compels us to add, that it does not owe its success to unworthy intrigue; its members bear their great estate with prudence, with good sense, and with moderation; and their domestic qualities form an antidote to the venom which generally pursues a career of success.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

THE DUCHY OF SAXE-ALTENBURG.

Ruling Family. Provinces and Population. Principal Towns. Religion. Educational Institutions. Budget. Form of Government. Ministers and Officers of the Court.

THE ducal house of Saxe-Altenburg is of the Lutheran religion. The present duke, Joseph, born in 1789, succeeded his father in 1834. He married, in 1817, Amelia, daughter of Duke Lewis of Wurtemberg, by whom he has four daughters. He has two sisters: Charlotte and Theresa, the former married to Duke Paul of Wurtemberg; the latter to the king of Bavaria: and three brothers: George, married to Princess Maria of Mecklenburg-Schwerin; Frederick; and Edward, married to a princess of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen.

The following is a view of the divisions of the duchy, and of their population:—

	Area in Geog. Sq. Miles.	Population.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
1. East-half of Altenburg....	—	72,629	—	—	—	—
2. West-half of Altenburg...	—	41,048	—	—	—	—
Total.....	23·41	113,677	8	2	458	19,856

According to the latest census, the duchy contains 117,921 inhabitants.

The principal towns are, Altenburg (12,629 inhabitants), Ronneburg (4640), and Eisenberg (4605).

The inhabitants are all Germans, except 10,443 Vandals, who, however, are now quite Germanized. There are 150 Catholics in this state; all the rest of the population is Lutheran.

There are a general superintendant, 6 special superintendants, 130 churches, and 79 *filiale*, or chapels of ease.

There is a gymnasium, a lyceum, 8 town-schools, a girls'-school; an institution for the daughters of noble families, a seminary for schoolmasters, a school for drawing, and one for trade and art.

The revenue amounts to 682,560 florins, of which 370,800 florins are contributed by the taxes. The exchequer debt amounts to 399,015 florins; the public debt to 1,440,000 florins. The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 982 men.

The government is a monarchy, which is limited by a diet, consisting of deputies of nobles, citizens, and peasants.

The ministers are, a president of the chamber of finance, a president of the consistory, and a president of the government.

The chief officers of court are, a grand huntsman, a grand marshal, and a grand equerry.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE DUCHY OF SAXE-MEININGEN-HILDBURGHAUSEN.

Ruling Family. Provinces and Population. Principal Towns. Religion. Educational Institutions. Budget. Form of Government. Diet. Administration. Historical Sketch of the Ducal line of Saxe-Meiningen. Nature and Products of the Country. Town of Meiningen.

MEININGEN is a sweet and secluded country of Germany, standing almost in the centre of that land, and, like Coburg, only little known to travellers through its distance from the great capitals. To English families, who deem it necessary to seek a foreign residence, or the means of a good education, remote from the seductions of crowded cities, the principal town of this duchy offers some advantages; and there, also, they will find the unalloyed German character.

The following is a view of the provinces and population of the duchy of Meiningen, as given in the Weimar *Almanach*, for 1836:

	Area in Geog. Sq. Miles.	Population.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
Dukedom of Meiningen.....	21·52	77,560	7½	11	179	11,710
a. Unterland with Römhild and Thamar...	16·54	55,970	5	7	105	9,120
b. Oberland with parts of Cobourg	4·98	21,590	2	4	74	2,590
Dukedom of Hildburghausen	9·35	28,472	10	4	110	9,900
Principality of Saalfeld	8·13	25,219	4	2	92	3,760
County of Kamburg	2·07	8,126	1	—	44	1,430
Lordship of Kranichfeld.....	·85	2,687	½	—	6	495
Total.....	41·92	142,064	22½	17	431	27,295

The present duke of Meiningen, is Bernard (E. F.), who was born December 17, 1800, and under his mother's guardianship, succeeded his father, December 24, 1803, and assumed the reins of government, December 17, 1821. He was married March 23, 1825, to Maria (F. W. C.), princess of the electorate of Hesse, by whom he has a son, George, born April 2, 1826.

Duke Bernard has two sisters: Adelaide, the queen-dowager of England, who was born August 13th, 1793; and Ida, born June 25, 1794, who is married to Duke Bernard of Weimar.

The following are the principal towns: Meiningen, the capital, containing 6000 inhabitants; Saalfeld, containing 4500; Hildburghausen 3500; Posneck 3500; Sonneberg and Eisfeld, each 3000.

The inhabitants are all Germans, with the exception of 1030 Jews. With respect to religion, they are divided into 140,200 Lutherans, 450 Catholics, and 384 members of the Reformed church, and 1030 Jews.

There are 3 gymnasiums and classical schools, a seminary for schoolmasters, a school for foresters, 17 town schools, and 212 village schools.

The following is the budget of the duchy of Meiningen for the year commencing April 1, 1835:—

I. REVENUE.

	Florins.
A. From the Domains:	
1. The Ducal Estates	105,332
2. Dues and Duties	159,539
3. Administration of the Forests and Hunts	276,605
4. From different sources	10,141
5. From Arrears	5,250
Florins	556,867
B. From Taxation, &c.:	
1. Amount of Direct Taxes	240,152
2. Amount of Indirect ditto	403,146
3. Regalien	8,280
4. From different sources	38,715
5. From Arrears	4,500
	694,792
Fl.	1,251,659

II. EXPENDITURE.

	Florins.
Expense of the Court	183,000
Of the Diet	9,335
Of the department of the Minister of the Interior	14,759
Of the College of Privy-Councillors	5,814
Of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs	9,307
Of the General Administration	60,569

	Florins.
Expense of Roads and Bridges	66,092
Of Medical Establishments	9,392
Of the Army	57,425
Of the Corps of Chasseurs	14,605
Of the Administration of Justice	73,987
Of Ecclesiastical Affairs, and of Public Instruction	46,150
Of the Administration of Finance in General	50,643
Of ditto in the Domains	44,141
Of ditto of the Revenues	36,024
Of ditto of the Forests	79,247
Of the Exchequer	10,372
Of Buildings	40,525
Of the School for Foresters	4,181
Of Prisons, &c.	10,000
The Education Chest	1,800
Gratuities	113,858
Interest and paying off of the Debt	280,368
Administration of ditto	4,965
Reserve	25,000
Fl.	1,251,659

The national debt of the duchy of Meiningen amounts to 5,303,556 florins. The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 1150 men.

The government is a constitutional monarchy; the new fundamental law is dated August 23, 1829. The diet is composed of 24 members, 8 chosen from the class of seignorial land-owners (*Rittergutsbesitzer*), 8 from the class of citizens, and 8 from that of peasants. It must be convoked once in three years, and can be convoked only by the duke. During the recesses, the functions of the diet are exercised by its marshal, two presidents, and syndicus. A substitute for a deputy is always chosen with the latter. All independent fathers of families are voters, such at least, who are Christians, and who fulfil the duties of a citizen. A candidate for the representation of a town, or of the peasants, besides possessing the qualities of a voter, must pay 15 dollars in direct taxes, annually. The deputies of the landed proprietors must be twenty-five years old. On the motion of any deputy, the votes of the diet may be given secretly.

The government of the country consists of the duke, his

ministry, the diet, and the privy-council, consisting of four members. By a decree, dated November 25, 1823, the administration was divided into four departments: first, into that of the government, properly so called, comprehending general policy, domestic and foreign; secondly, into that of the supreme court for the administration of justice; the third department is that of the consistorial court; and the fourth, that of the exchequer.

The officers of the court are, a grand chamberlain, a grand huntsman, a vice-grand equerry, and a marshal of the court.

The founder of the ducal line of Saxe-Meiningen was Bernard, third son of Ernest the Pious, duke of Gotha, at the division of whose territories in 1680, he obtained Meiningen, the seventh part, valued at 16,137 florins annually. This prince was twice married, and had twelve children. His eldest son, Lewis, had five children, but they left no male heir, and the succession devolved upon Antony Ulrich, his youngest son, by a princess of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, in 1746. Duke Anthony Ulrich had eight children by a princess of Hesse-Philipsthal, and at his death, in 1763, was succeeded by his eldest son, Augustus. This prince dying without male issue in July 1782, was succeeded by his next surviving brother, George Frederic Charles, who married Louisa, princess of Hohenlohe-Langenburg. The offspring of this marriage were, the present duke of Meiningen, Adelaide, queen-dowager of England, and Ida, duchess of Weimar. Duke George died in 1803, and left his duchess unrestricted regent of his hereditary states, and sole guardian of their infant children. The good sense, sound discretion, and firmness with which that excellent lady ruled her people, and the strong and solid religious principles in which she educated her children, are sufficient proofs that the confidence of the duke had not been misplaced. This estimable princess died April 30, 1837, in her seventy-fourth year.

The original heritage of Duke Bernard in 1680, only comprehended ten square miles; but it had been increased, by successive acquisitions, to eighteen square miles, when a division of the dukedom of Saxe-Gotha-Altenburg was made in 1825. On this occasion, the duke of Meiningen obtained the bailiwick of Röm-

hild, several Coburg bailiwicks and towns, the duchy of Hildburghausen, Kamburg, Kranichfeld, and some other smaller places.

At this period, there were five different constitutions in the duchy of Meiningen. In Meiningen itself, the duke had granted a new one in 1824, but both Hildburghausen and the Coburg provinces had constitutions of their own. In the bailiwick Kranichfeld, the constitution of Gotha, and in the bailiwick Kamburg, that of Altenburg was in force. The system of administration in these different provinces was equally distinct. In order to obviate these discrepancies, and to place all his territories under one form of government, the duke of Meiningen first appointed a commission, and subsequently summoned the privy-councillor Schmid, a professor at Jena, to his assistance. The plans and whole system of the latter are contained in a series of edicts, and in a new fundamental law of August 29, 1829. The constitution of the higher offices of government presents nothing remarkable. The privy council forms a kind of legislative committee, of which foreigners of talent and distinction may also be members. The great number of provincial judgeships have been abolished, or united to those of the towns. The penal law is administered by the ordinary judges, and the excise officers are their own police.

The territory of Meiningen is composed of mountains and valleys. In some parts where the Black Forest extends, and where the Thuringian forest joins the Fichtelgebirge, it is extremely rough and uncultivated. The growth of corn does not equal the demand, and it is therefore imported from Bavaria. The chief products of the country are potatoes, flax, tobacco, some hops and turnip-seed, good fruit, and an immense quantity of wood, which is a staple article. There are iron-mines, yielding 17,000 cwt. yearly, salt-works, and marble-pits.

The articles of manufacture are porcelain, glasses, colours, potash, and slates. The principal exports are iron-ware, slates, mill-stones, tobacco, salt, and wood.

The capital of this duchy is the town of Meiningen, which contains 600 houses, and 6000 inhabitants. It boasts of three

palaces, a theatre, built in 1831, a senate-house, in which there is a public library, a riding-school, a park, and an orangery. There is also a library belonging to the duke, a museum of natural history, a collection of coins, pictures, and prints; also, the Bentinck-Donop cabinet of antiquities.

The other public buildings are, the Casino or club-house, the new gymnasium, and new hospital. There are beautiful walks in the park, and in the whole neighbourhood; the former is si leagues in circumference.

The other principal towns in this state are, Saalfeld, remarkable for its lyceum, mint, and manufactures, with a population of about 4000; Sonnenberg; with 2400, famous for its cheap toys and other fancy articles, very extensively exported; Poesneck, with 3000 inhabitants, and a porcelain manufactory; Dreissigacker, noted for its forest-school; Liebenstein, and a few others.

Meiningen is remarkable, in modern times, as the birth-place of Adelaide, the queen-dowager of England, who is equally dear to the countrymen whom she quitted in her youth, as to the subjects among whom she has since become naturalized. In an age in which a certain class of writers are so eager to sneer at royalty, it is gratifying to hold forth the character of this illustrious woman, against whom the genius of malice has never been able to propagate a calumny. To more authentic and more popular voices than my own, I shall intrust the record of her character. The following is a brief extract from the "Conversations-Lexikon," a work notoriously written on what is called the liberal side.

"From her childhood quiet and unostentatious, she spent the greatest portion of her time in the cultivation of her mind; but in the circle of her family, she was always animated and cheerful. Her aversion to vain show, and to the follies of the gay world, increased as she grew older, and she manifested the most decided opposition to the moral laxity and irreligion which at one time were countenanced at several German courts. Together with her mother, she was extremely active in establishing and superintending schools for the lower classes, and in alleviating the distresses of the poor both in the capital and throughout the country. She

was the soul of every institution which had the good of her fellow-creatures for its object*."

A later tribute was delivered by the archbishop of Canterbury, at a public meeting held soon after the death of William IV. I am happy in having an opportunity of rescuing such impressive words from a fugitive newspaper.

"It is not many days since I attended on his late Majesty during the few last hours of his life, and truly it was an edifying sight to witness the patience with which he endured sufferings the most oppressive; his thankfulness to the Almighty for any alleviations under the most painful disorders; his sense of each care paid him; the absence of all expressions of impatience; his assiduity in the discharge of every public duty to the utmost of his power; his attention to every paper that was brought to him; the serious state of his mind, and his devotion to his religious duties preparatory to his departure for that happy world to which he hoped that he had been summoned. Three different times," said his Grace, "was I called into his presence the day before his dissolution. He received the sacrament first; on my second summons I read the church service to him, and the third time, it appeared that the oppression under which he laboured prevented him from joining outwardly in the service, though he appeared sensible of the consolations which I read to him out of our religious service. For three weeks prior to his dissolution, the queen had sat by his bedside, performing for him every office which a sick man could require, and depriving herself of all manner of rest and refection. She underwent labours which I thought no ordinary woman could endure. No language can do justice to her meekness, and to the calmness of mind which she sought to maintain before the king, while sorrow was preying on her heart. Such constancy of affection was, I think, one of the most interesting spectacles that could be presented to a mind desirous of being gratified with the sight of human excellence."

* See the article "Adelaide," in the "Conversations-Lexikon der Neuesten Zeit und Literatur," vol. i.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE GRAND DUCHY OF MECKLENBURG-STRELITZ.

The Ruling Family. Provinces and Population. Principal Towns. Births and Deaths in 1835. *Educational Institutions. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Officers of Government, and of the Court. Nature of the Country. Manufactures. Religion. Public Instruction. Administration of Justice.*

THE ruling family of Mecklenburg-Strelitz is of the Protestant religion. The present grand duke is George, born August 12, 1779, who succeeded to the throne, Nov. 6, 1816, and was married, in 1817, to Maria, daughter of the Landgrave Frederic of Hesse-Cassel, by whom he has two sons and two daughters; Frederic, the heir-apparent, was born Oct. 17, 1819. The duke has two sisters, Theresa, princess of Thurn and Taxis, and Frederica, queen of Hanover; and one brother, Charles, a general of infantry in the Prussian service.

The grand duchy comprises an area of $36.^{13}$ square miles; viz., of $29.^{60}$ in the duchy of Strelitz, and $6.^{50}$ in the principality of Ratzeburg. The population at the end of 1835, was 85,257. There are 9 towns, of which New Strelitz contains 5767 inhabitants, New Brandenburg 6003, Friedland 4433, and Old Strelitz 3089; there are also 2 market-towns, 219 villages, (in 135 of which, there are churches), 245 ducal estates and domains, and 65 allodial and feudal estates. In 1835, there were 1118 male, and 1127 female births; 850 deaths of males, and 762 of females; and 571 marriages, in the duchy of Strelitz. Of the births, 259 were illegitimate. In the principality of Ratzeburg, there were 544 births, of which, 63 were illegitimate; 388 deaths, and 105 marriages.

There are three classical, and 11 *Real*-schools, and one for parish clerks, which is also a seminary for country-schoolmasters.

The revenue is 500,000 florins; the public debt is joined to that of Schwerin; the amount of the exchequer-debt is not known.

The army is composed of 742 men, who form a battalion of infantry, and a *commando* of hussars; the contingent to the army of the confederacy is 717 men.

The government is monarchical, and exactly similar to that of Schwerin, conjointly with the diet of which its representatives form one chamber. The families of Schwerin and Strelitz are bound by family-contracts of 1701 and 1755.

The officers of government are, a minister of state, a councillor, and a secretary of state.

The officers of the court are, a grand master, a house-marshal, and a marshal of the court.

The grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz is a level country, with very few elevations; it contains several lakes. Its principal products are corn, pulse, flax, hemp, hops, fruit, potatoes, turnips, tobacco, and wood; its animal products are horses, oxen, sheep, swine, geese, game, and fish.

Its manufactures are not very numerous; the most remarkable are of linen, tobacco, and leather.

Almost all the inhabitants are Lutherans, and the 55 livings are under the direction of 5 synods; the number of clergymen is 66. The department of public instruction is under the direction of the consistorial court. At the head of the department of justice, is the supreme court of appeal; under it is the chancery of justice; besides these, there are 8 town-magistrates, 4 bailiffs, and the patrimonial courts.

At the close of the following chapter, several particulars will occur, which apply equally to the inhabitants, and to the reigning family, of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and of Mecklenburg-Schwerin.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

THE GRAND DUCHY OF MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN.

The Ruling Family. Provinces and Population. Births and Deaths in 1835. *Principal Towns. Religion. Educational Institutions. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Ministers. Officers of the Court. Character of the Inhabitants of the two Duchies. Chronology of the two Duchies. Historical Sketch of the Reigning Family of the two Duchies.*

THE ruling family of Mecklenburg-Schwerin is of the Protestant religion. The present grand duke is Paul Frederic, who succeeded his grandfather, Frederic Francis; he was born September 15, 1800, and he married, May 25, 1822, Alexandrina, princess of Prussia, by whom he has two sons and one daughter. The half-sister of the grand duke is Helena, born January 24, 1814, lately married to the duke of Orleans.

He has an uncle, Gustavus, who is cathedral-'*capitular*' at Magdeburg, and an aunt, Charlotte Frederica, married in 1784 to the Prince Christian Frederic of Denmark, from whom she was separated in 1812.

The following is a view of the provinces of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and of their population :—

	Area in Geog. Sq. Miles.	Population.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.
Circle of Mecklenburg.....	133·83	248,640	18	8	1077
Circle of Wenden	76·50	140,482	18	2	795
Principality of Schwerin.....	9·80	32,298	3	—	92
Lordship of Wismar	3·20	15,419	1	—	37
Town of Rostock	·50	18,243	1	1	—
Total.....	223·83	455,032	41	11	2001

In 1835, the entire population was 466,540: viz. 33,031 in the principality of Schwerin; 15,694 in the lordship of Wismar; and 18,281 in the town of Rostock.

In 1835, there were 8719 male, and 8259 female births; of the whole of which, 2070 were illegitimate: there were 11,241

deaths, (not including the still-born), of which 5834 were of males, and 5407 of females. 1599 persons died at more than seventy years of age: there were 3646 marriages; and 10,564 children were confirmed.

The principal towns are, Rostock (18,281 inhabitants), Schwerin (13,035), Wismar (10,090), Güstrow (8620), Parchim (5690).

With the exception of the Jews, all the inhabitants are Germans. With respect to religion, 462,632 are Lutherans, 642 Catholics, 149 members of the Reformed church, and 3117 Jews.

There are 6 Lutheran dioceses, 32 superintendantships (*Präposituren*), 319 parishes, 395 churches, and 2 Catholic parishes.

The educational institutions are, the university of Rostock, at which there were 110 students in 1830, 5 gymnasiums, 41 principal town-schools, a seminary for preachers, and one for schoolmasters.

The revenue is 2,300,000 florins. The public debt amounts to 9,500,000 florins.

The army is composed of 4 battalions of infantry, 1 of artillery, and a regiment of light-horse. The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 3580 men.

The form of government is monarchical and representative. The diet, which is united to that of Strelitz, has important rights, and is composed of the holders of seignorial estates, and of the authorities of the 41 towns. The constitution is based on contracts made in 1572, 1612, and 1675, between the sovereign and the states.

The ministers of state are, a president of the privy-council, two privy councillors, and a councillor of finance.

The chief officers of court are, a marshal, a marshal of the house, and a grand-equerry.

The inhabitants of Mecklenburg are an able-bodied race, with light hair and blue eyes; generally thin during their youth, but after thirty predisposed to corpulence. They are immoderate eaters, and make (with the exception of the higher classes) five meals a day. Hoffman assures us, that what a peasant devours at the first of his two breakfasts, would serve most persons for one

whole day, and a small eater for three. The country-people are not fond of vegetables, soup, or beer; their favourite dishes are solid meat, and they are much addicted to spirits. The costume in many parts is peculiar; the women, wearing a gay head-dress; the men, broad-brimmed hats and gaiters.

The agricultural class in its different divisions, is more analogous to that of England, than is the case in other parts of Germany; its richer members are called by the Baron von Werch, "gentlemen farmers." The peasants generally, though now emancipated, have more or less the character of serfs. The clergymen, familiarly called pastors (*Pastoren*), are much more liberally supported in Mecklenburg, than in Southern Germany: they are most of them rich enough to keep a carriage of some kind, a luxury, of which very few clergymen of Wurtemberg or Baden can boast.

The inhabitants are passionately addicted to gambling, and are remarkable for making heavy bets on trifling occasions. It is at cards that they chiefly stake their money; with dice they are quite unacquainted. The country-people are very superstitious, and their belief in witches and spirits is still, in a great measure, unshaken. On May day, it is a common custom with them to chalk three crosses on the doors of their stables and farm-yards, to preserve the cattle from being bewitched. They attempt to prophesy the nature of future events, from the form which molten lead assumes when poured into water. On New Year's eve, they look through the handle of an old key at the roof of the house, where, if one of its inmates is to die during the succeeding year, they believe they shall see a black coffin. At Easter, and in many parts at Michaelmas, there are town and village horse-races, where the victor is rewarded with a richly ornamented crown, which he wears on the top of his hat: he is called the king, and the second-best riders are also dignified with lofty titles. The fairs, throughout the duchy, are the feasts of friends and old acquaintances, who only see one another on such occasions. The favourite amusements of the towns'-people are shooting at a mark, (a diversion common throughout Germany,) and skittles. A great occasion of popular rejoicing, is the driving

out of the cattle from the farm-yards at spring-tide; when the young steers are allowed to fight, and sometimes to mortally wound each other. In the autumn, dances in the open air are very common, particularly at the rye-harvest.

Marriages are delayed by the conscription, which takes place in the twenty-second year, and by military service for six years. The parties must also have a dwelling, without which, a clergyman is not permitted to marry them.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE TWO DUCHIES OF MECKLENBURG.

Year.

970. Mistaw, prince of the Obotrites, converted to Christianity.
1015—1066. Reign of Godschalk. Christianity, which had been abolished, re-established by force. Foundation of the bishoprics of Mecklenburg and Ratzeburg.
1066. Christianity again abolished.
1142. The county of Ratzeburg created.
1166. The county of Schwerin created.
1161—1181. Propagation of Christianity by Pribislaw. Mecklenburg falls under Danish supremacy.
1225. Mecklenburg becomes independent of Denmark, and is received into the German empire.
1225. Division of territory, by the four lines of Mecklenburg, Werle, Rostock, and Richenberg.
1301. The lordship of Rostock becomes subject to the king of Denmark.
1304. Henry II., surnamed the Lion, becomes master of Schwerin and Stargard.
1323. Henry receives Rostock from Denmark, as an hereditary fief.
1348. The emperor, Charles IV., makes the sovereigns of Mecklenburg, dukes.
1352. The lines of Stargard and Schwerin founded.
1418. The university of Rostock founded.
1523. The diets of the two Duchies definitively united.
1534. The Reformation adopted at Rostock.
1555. Protestantism universal in Mecklenburg.
1573. Treaty between the dukes and the town of Rostock.
1628. The dukes of Mecklenburg banished, and their territories given to Wallenstein, as an hereditary fief.

Year.

1631. The return of the dukes to their former power and possessions.
1701. Treaty with Hamburg. The line of Strelitz founded.
1761. Marriage of the Princess Charlotte Sophia of Mecklenburg-Strelitz to George III.
1788. Final treaty with the town of Rostock.
1793. Marriage of the Princess Louisa of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, to the crown prince of Prussia.
1808. The duchy of Mecklenburg is received into the Rhenish confederacy.
1815. Mecklenburg becomes a grand duchy.
1837. Marriage of the Princess Helena of Mecklenburg-Schwerin to the duke of Orleans.

The family of Mecklenburg is, with the family of the Capets, the most ancient reigning house of Europe. It is the only sovereign house of Sclavonian origin now in existence. It was a royal house before it was princely, independent before it united itself to the empire, and a member of the empire before it became again independent in the bosom of the Germanic confederation. Its reigning princes have for a long time borne the titles of dukes, and since 1815 have taken that of grand dukes. The German genealogists make them descend from the Sclavonian princes of the race Wende, or Wandalique, of the tribe of Obotrites. According to them their origin may be traced back Witzan, the chief of that tribe.

From Micislas down to the present day, this family reckons twenty-eight generations. It has contracted alliances with nineteen sovereign states, and with twenty-three sovereign families, of which fifteen still exist. It has received the blood of twenty reigning houses through thirty-one princesses. Russia gave it a niece of Peter the Great, and a daughter of Paul I.; Sweden, a daughter of Gustavus Vasa; Denmark, a grand niece of Canute the Great, king of England; and Prussia, five princesses, among whom is Alexandrina, wife of the reigning grand duke. Its blood has been mingled with nine foreign sovereign houses, who have intermarried with fourteen princesses of Mecklenburg. It gave to Russia, the Regent Anne, mother of the Czar Ivan; to

England, Charlotte, the worthy queen of George III.; to Denmark, Louisa, consort of Frederic IV.; to Poland, Lintgarde, consort of Przemislas II.; to Prussia, Sophia Louisa, consort of Frederic I.; and Louisa, the late admirable consort of the reigning king, Frederic William III. It gave a king to Sweden, through Margaret, who made the treaty of Calmar, in 1397. In fine, having become allied with eleven daughters or sisters of kings, it has given seven queens or regents to Russia, England, Denmark, Poland, and Prussia, and recently a wife to the heir-apparent to the throne of France, in the princess Helena, who promises by her highly cultivated and amiable character to emulate the queens, whom Mecklenburg formerly gave to England and Prussia.

The reigning duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, is son-in-law to the present king of Prussia; nephew to William, king of Holland, who married the Princess Wilhelmina, sister of the king of Prussia, brother-in-law to the Emperor Nicholas of Russia, who married Charlotte, the daughter of Frederic William III., and his nephew by his mother, the daughter of Paul I. He is also nephew to William, prince of Orange, heir to the throne of the Netherlands, who married Anne, sister of the Emperor Nicholas; also nephew of the Archduke Anthony, palatine of Hungary, uncle to the present emperor of Austria, who married Alexandra, sister of the Grand Duchess Anne. Finally, he is nephew to Charles Frederic, grand duke of Saxe-Weimar, who married Mary, sister to the above-mentioned princesses. Such are the family connexions of the reigning grand duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE DUKEDOMS OF ANHALT.

Ruling Families. Provinces and Population. Mediatized Possessions. Principal Towns. Possessions in Russia of the Duke of Cöthen. Religion. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Ministers and Officers of Court.

THERE are three dukedoms of Anhalt; viz., Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg, and Anhalt-Cöthen. The ruling families of all of them are of the Protestant religion.

The present duke of Anhalt-Dessau is Leopold, born October 1, 1794, who succeeded his grandfather, Leopold, in 1817. He married, in 1818, Frederica, daughter of Prince Lewis of Prussia, by whom he has two children, Frederica, and Frederic, the heir apparent, born April 29, 1831.

The reigning duke of Anhalt-Bernburg is Alexander Charles, born 1805, who succeeded his father Alexius, in 1834; in whch year, he married Frederica, princess of Sleswick-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg. His sister Louisa is married to Prince William of Prussia.

The present duke of Anhalt-Cöthen is Henry, born 1778, who succeeded to the throne, in 1830; he married, in 1819, Augusta, princess of Reuss-Köstritz.

The following is a view of the divisions of Anhalt, and of their population:—

	Area in Geo. Sq. Miles.	Population. in 1830-31.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
Anhalt-Dessau ...	17	57,629	6	4	101	8,293
Anhalt-Bernburg					12	6,547
Upper Duchy...	16	19,917	5	—	48	
Lower Duchy...		23,408	2	1	98	6,000
Anhalt-Cöthen ...	15	36,000	4	1		
Total	48	136,954	17	7	259	20,840

The mediatized possessions of the duke of Anhalt-Dessau, which are all alienable except the bailiwick of Walternienburg, comprehend 9 square miles, and contain 43 villages, 1600 houses

and 12,000 inhabitants. The principality of Pless, in Silesia, is a possession of the second son of the house of Cöthen, and belongs now to Prince Lewis, brother of the reigning duke. It comprehends 19 square miles, and contains 2 towns, 2 market-towns, 91 villages, and about 43,000 inhabitants. The possessions in the south of Russia amount to about 10 square miles, and are now permanently united to the duchy of Cöthen, by the will of the last grand duke.

The principal towns are, Dessau (10,611 inhabitants), Zerbst (8949), Cöthen (6035), Bernburg (5995). The inhabitants are all Protestants, with the exception of 1050 Catholics, and 2000 Jews.

In Dessau, there are 21 Lutheran parishes, 32 of the Reformed church, and 2 Catholic; in Bernburg, 42 of the evangelical church; in Cöthen, 28 of the reformed, 19 Lutheran, and 1 Catholic. In Dessau, there are 2 gymnasiums, in Bernburg 1, and in Cöthen 1.

	Florins.		Florins.
In Dessau, the Revenue is.....	710,000	the Public Debt	1,000,000
Bernburg.....	450,000	.....	600,000
Cöthen (including domains and other private property of the duke).....	400,000	.....	1,600,000
Total.....	1,560,000	.....	3,200,000

The contingent of Dessau to the army of the confederacy is 529 men; of Bernburg, 370; and of Cöthen, 325.

The form of government is monarchical, but the right of taxation is shared by the old diet of the duchy. The succession is hereditary, to the exclusion of females. The diet (*Landschaft*) is composed of two committees; the first contains four land-councillors for Bernburg, Cöthen, Dessau, and Zerbst, and the burgomasters of those towns; the second consists of twelve possessors of seignorial estates, and of deputies of the four above-mentioned towns, eight in number. The ministers are, in Dessau, a president of the government, and a director of the exchequer. In Bernburg, they are the same, and there is also a privy-council. In Cöthen, they are also the same.

The chief officers in the courts of Anhalt are, a marshal of the court, a master of the hunt, and a captain of the castle.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

THE PRINCIPALITY OF WALDECK.

The Ruling Family. Districts and Population. Towns. Religion. Budget. Form of Government. Officers of Government, and of the Court.

THE ruling family of Waldeck is of the Protestant religion The present prince is George, born Sept. 20, 1789, who succeeded to the throne, Sept. 9, 1813, and who was married, June 26, 1823, to Emma, princess of Anhalt-Bernburg-Schaumburg. He has four children: George, the heir-apparent, was born January 13, 1831. This prince has one sister, Ida, princess of Schaumburg-Lippe, and two brothers, Charles, who is in the Bavarian army, and Hermann, who is in the Austrian army.

The territory of Waldeck comprehends $21\cdot^{66}$ square miles, and is divided into six districts; the population is 56,000. The principal towns are, Corbach (2200 inhabitants), and Arolsen, the residence of the prince (above 2000). The principality of Pyrmont, which forms part of the possessions of the prince of Waldeck, contains 6000 inhabitants. There are in the whole territory, 14 towns, 105 villages, and 12,000 houses. With the exception of 600 members of the Reformed church, 800 Catholics, and 500 Jews, all the inhabitants are Lutherans.

The revenue is 480,000 florins. The public debt amounts to 1,400,000 florins. The contingent to the army of the confederacy, is 518 men.

The government is a constitutional monarchy; the constitution is of ancient date, but was renewed in 1816; the representatives form a single chamber. Waldeck was formerly a fief of the electorate of Hesse; Pyrmont, of Prussia. The law of primogeniture was introduced, 1698. The family of Waldeck-Bergheim holds its possessions under the supremacy of Waldeck, but in

respect to the possession of Limpurg, is numbered amongst the mediatized families of Wurtemberg.

The officers of government are, a president of the government, a president of the chamber, a director of the tribunal of the court, and a privy councillor.

The officers of the court are, a marshal, and a grand-equerry.

The agreeable bathing-place, Pyrmont, is the most remarkable town in this state. It presents an excellent specimen of the German Spas; less affected, perhaps, by caprice and fashion, than most others.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

THE PRINCIPALITY OF HOHENZOLLERN-SIGMARINGEN.

The Ruling Family. Area. Population. Towns. Religion. Private property of the Prince. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Ministers.

THE ruling family of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen is of the Catholic religion. The present prince is Charles Anthony, born 1785, who succeeded his father, Anthony, in 1831, and married, in 1808, Antoinette Murat, niece of Murat, king of Naples. He has three daughters and one son; the latter, Charles, the heir-apparent, was born in 1811, and married, in 1834, Josephine, princess of Baden.

The area of this state is $18^{\cdot 25}$ square miles. The population is 42,420. There are 4 towns, 7 market-towns, 70 villages and hamlets, 8 castles, and 7107 houses. With the exception of 100 Jews, all the inhabitants are Catholics. The capital, Sigmaringen, has a population of 1400. Besides this principality, the monasteries of Beuren and Holzheim in Bavaria, and the lordships of Boxmeer, Dixmuiden, Berg, Gendringen, Elten, Wisch, Panneerden and Mühlingen in the Netherlands and Belgium, are also possessions of the prince of Sigmaringen.

The revenue is 300,000 florins, to which the mediatized possessions contribute at least one-fourth.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 370 men.

The government is monarchical and representative. The diet is composed of 17 members.

The ministers are, a president of the government, and a councillor of finance.

CHAPTER XL.

THE PRINCIPALITY OF HOHENZOLLERN-HECHINGEN.

The Ruling Family. Area; Population; Towns. Budget; Army. Form of Government; Ministers.

THE family of Hohenzollern is the parent tree of the present Prussian dynasty. The most remote known ancestor of this race was Thassilo, count of Zollern, who died about 800. His descendant in the eighth generation had two sons, Frederic and Conrad; the latter became margrave of Nuremberg in 1200, and his grand-nephew Frederic, was made, in 1277, a prince;—from this last personage, the royal house of Prussia is descended.

The ruling family of Hohenzollern-Hechingen is of the Catholic religion. The present prince is Frederic, born July 22, 1776, who succeeded to the throne in 1810, and who married, in 1800, Paulina, princess of Courland-Sagan. They have one son, Frederic, the heir-apparent, born 1801, married 1826, to Eugenia, princess of Leuchtenberg. The prince has three half-sisters: viz, Louisa, baroness von der Burg; Maximiliana, countess of Lodron; and Josephine, countess of Festetics-Tolna. He has also an uncle, Francis, who is an Austrian general field-marshal.

This principality comprehends 6½ German square miles. The population is 21,000, who are all Germans and Catholics. There are four towns, one of which, Hechingen, the capital, contains 2800 inhabitants; 25 villages, and 2420 houses. Not far from Hechingen the traveller discerns the ancient castle of Hohenzollern, the cradle of the ruling family of Prussia: its lofty site commands a wide range of scenery.

The revenue amounts to 130,000 florins. The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 145 men.

The government is monarchical, and representative. Twelve deputies form the representation, of whom 2 are chosen by the

the town of Hechingen, and 10 by the country-parishes. The succession to the throne, in both Hohenzollerns, is regulated by the contract of 1575, and by the *Familien Institut*, of 1821, which was guaranteed by the king of Prussia, as the head of the house. The law of succession excludes females, till the last male representative of the house, in either of the three lines, is deceased.

The ministers are, a president of the government, a privy-councillor, and a director of the exchequer.

This is a mountainous region; forests darken and variegate its heights, while its valleys are fertile, and produce a sufficient supply of corn for the consumption of the inhabitants.

CHAPTER XLI.

THE PRINCIPALITY OF SCHWARZBURG-SONDERSHAUSEN.

The Ruling Family. Districts and Population; Towns. Religion. Budget; Army. Form of Government; Officers of Government, and of the Court.

The ruling family of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen is of the Lutheran religion. The reigning prince is Günther, born September 24, 1801, who succeeded to the crown, on the resignation of his father, 1835; and who married, first, Maria, princess of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, who died in 1833; and, secondly, Matilda, princess of Hohenlohe-Oehringen. He has three children by his first wife, Elizabeth, Günther, and Leopold.

The territory of this state comprehends $16\cdot^{00}$ German square miles, and is divided into 7 bailiwicks. The population is 54,080. The capital, Sondershausen, contains 3600 inhabitants; and Arnstadt, 4842. There are 7 market-towns, 83 villages, and 8600 houses. The inhabitants are all Lutherans, with the exception of 200 Catholics.

The revenue is 400,000 florins, and the public debt amounts to the same sum. In 1833, the direct taxes were 75,123 dollars; but in the succeeding year they were diminished to 48,891 dollars.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 451 men.

The government is monarchical, and there has existed a diet since December 28, 1830.

The officers of government are, a chancellor and president of the consistory, a president of the chamber of finance, and a councillor of the cabinet.

The chief officers of court are, a grand huntsman, a grand equerry, and a captain of the castle.

CHAPTER XLII.

THE PRINCIPALITY OF SCHWARZBURG-RUDOLSTADT.

The Ruling Family. Districts and Population; Towns. Religion. Budget; Army. Form of Government; Officers of Government, and of the Court.

THE ruling house of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt is of the Lutheran religion. The present prince is Günther, born November 6, 1793, who succeeded to the crown, under the guardianship of his mother, in 1807, and who assumed the reins of government in 1814. He married, in 1816, Augusta, princess of Anhalt-Dessau, and has two children, of whom the eldest, Günther, the heir-apparent, was born in 1821. He has a sister, Thecla, born in 1795, princess of Schonburg-Waldenburg; and a brother, Albert, married to a princess of Solms-Braunfels.

This state contains $19^{\cdot 10}$ German square miles, and is divided into 11 bailiwicks. The entire population is 64,239. There are, 7 towns, 1 market-town, 155 villages, 8 castles, and 10,281 houses. The town of Rudolstadt contains 4000 inhabitants; Frankenhausen, 3900. All the inhabitants are Lutherans, with the exception of 150 Catholics and 167 Jews.

The revenue is 325,000 florins: the public debt (not including the exchequer debt) amounted, in 1826, to 269,805 florins.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 539 men.

The government is a constitutional monarchy; a diet has existed since 1816. The prince of Rudolstadt has private property in Holstein.

The officers of government are, a chancellor of the government and president of the consistory, and a vice-chancellor. There is a privy council composed of the above officials, of the grand equerry, and a privy councillor.

The officers of court are, a captain of the castle, a marshal, and a grand equerry.

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE PRINCIPALITY OF LIECHTENSTEIN.

The Ruling Family. Area. Mediatized Possessions of the Prince. Towns. Budget; Army. Form of Government; Officers of Government.

THIS opulent and distinguished family is descended from Azo IV., of Este, who died in 1037. The principality is situated a few leagues south of the lake of Constance, on the banks of the Rhine: is an agreeable district, containing fine forests, and rearing a considerable number of horned-cattle. The prince maintains a guard of honour and a company of grenadiers.

The house of Liechtenstein is of the Catholic religion. The present prince is Aloys, born in 1796, who succeeded his father, John, in 1836. He married, in 1831, the Countess Francisca de Paula von Kinsky, by whom he has a daughter, Maria, born in 1834. He has six brothers, five of whom are in the Austrian service; and four sisters.

The territory of Liechtenstein comprehends $2\cdot^{45}$ German square miles; but the mediatized principalities and lordships belonging to the prince of Liechtenstein, include 104 German square miles: they are situated in Austria, Moravia, Silesia, Bohemia, Hungary, and Styria.

In Liechtenstein, there are 5800 inhabitants, who are all Catholics. The principal town is Vaduz, which contains 697 inhabitants. There are 9 villages, 5 castles, and 1207 houses. The mediatized possessions contain 24 towns, 35 market-towns, 756 villages, 46 castles, and about 600,000 inhabitants.

The revenue of the prince is more than 1,200,000 florins, of which the inhabitants of Liechtenstein pay 5000 florins, and the domains 17,000 florins.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 55 men.

The government is monarchical, and has been constitutional since 1818: the representatives form one chamber.

The officers of government for the principality are, a court-councillor, and a chief bailiff (*Obervogt*) at Vaduz.

Mr. Cooper, the American traveller, is pleased to be extremely facetious at the expense of the territory of Liechtenstein. "I turned to the maps and guide-books with a good deal of curiosity, in order to ascertain if, after having reaped the honour of discovering a mountain, it was now to be my good fortune to discover a country! Everybody knows where San Marino is to be found; and as for Monaco, I have actually been in it; but, by no process of study, or by no inquiry, could I ascertain where this Liechtenstein is. If I asked a German and he pretended to know, the next of his countrymen to whom I put the question, was certain to change the site to another quarter of the empire. After all, I was obliged to abandon the point, and, to this hour, I am as ignorant as ever where Liechtenstein is*."

But as Mr. Cooper points his heavy artillery even more broadly against his own countrymen, than upon foreigners, the Liechtensteins will not be much discomposed,—and their name and domain will probably survive even the works of Cooper.

It will be perceived that this family is in possession of very large mediatized property, of far more importance and extent than that of which they enjoy the sovereignty.

* "Excursions in Switzerland," vol. ii. p. 89—91.

CHAPTER XLIV.

THE DUCHY OF HOLSTEIN.

The Ruling Family. Districts and Population; Towns. Religion. Budget; Army. Form of Government.

HOLSTEIN, a part of the kingdom of Denmark, is briefly noticed here, as it entitles the king to a seat in the German diet.

The ducal family is of the Lutheran religion. The present duke is King Frederic IV., born in 1768, who was made co-regent in 1784, and who succeeded his father, March 13, 1808. He married, July 31, 1790, Maria, princess of Hesse-Cassel. He has two daughters, Caroline, born in 1793, married, 1829, to her cousin, Prince Ferdinand; and Wilhelmina, born in 1808, married, 1828, to her second cousin, Prince Frederic.

The area of the duchy is $172^{\cdot 55}$ square miles, of which $19^{\cdot 05}$ form the province of Lauenburg. The population, in 1828, was 410,385; namely, 374,745 in Holstein, and 35,640 in Lauenburg. There are, 17 towns, 23 market-towns, 163 villages with livings, 443 small villages and hamlets, 52,500 houses. The inhabitants are all Germans and Lutherans, with the exception of 500 members of the Reformed church, 900 Catholics, 400 Mennonites, and 3000 Jews. The capital, Glückstadt, contains 5,200 inhabitants, Altona 26,000, Kiel 11,791, and Rendsburg 7700.

The revenue is 2,400,000 florins, of which Holstein contributes 2,120,000 florins, and Lauenburg 280,000 florins.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 3,900 men.

The government is monarchical, with a diet since 1834.

Kiel, the university of Holstein, is placed in an agreeable country, and maintains an active communication with Copenhagen by steam-boats. The library contains 100,000 volumes. In the winter of 1829—30, there were 152 students in theology, 105 in law, 57 in medicine, and 19 in other studies. The professors who enjoy the greatest note are, Twesten, in theology, and I. Olshausen, who has been engaged in publishing the original of the "Zendavesta."

CHAPTER XLV.

THE PRINCIPALITIES OF REUSS.

The Ruling Families. Divisions and Population; Principal Towns. Budget; Army. Form of Government; Ministers and Officers of the Courts.

All the princes of Reuss are of the Protestant religion. The heads of the different families are as follows:—1. Henry XX., prince of Reuss-Greitz, born 1794, succeeded to the throne 1836, married, 1834, to Sophia, princess of Lowenstein-Wertheim-Rosenberg; 2. Henry LXII., prince of Reuss-Schleiz, born 1785, succeeded his father 1818; 3. Henry LXIV., prince of Reuss-Schleiz-Köstritz, born 1787, succeeded his father 1814; 4. Henry LXXII., born 1797, prince of Reuss-Lobenstein and Ebersdorf, succeeded his father 1822. The family of Greitz is the elder line; all the others are members of the younger, or Schleiz.

The following is a view of the divisions of Reuss, and of their population:—

	Area in Geog. Sq. Miles.	Population in 1833.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
I. Reuss (elder line) ..	6·84	23,365	2	1	75	3,850
II. Reuss (younger line)						
Reuss-Schleiz	6·10	17,305	2	1	56	2,780
Reuss-Lobenstein and Ebersdorf ...	7·75	15,223	2	2	43	2,950
Gera	7·25	23,402	2	3	88	3,700
Total	27·94	79,375	8	7	262	13,280

In 1835, the lordship of Droyssig, in the Weissenfels circle of the Prussian dukedom of Saxony, fell to the prince of Lobenstein-Ebersdorf, who took possession of it, June 9, 1835. It consists of 24 villages.

The principal towns of Reuss are, Gera (9050 inhabitants), and Greitz (6300). The population is entirely German, with

the exception of 300 Jews; besides whom, and 400 Herrnhuters, all the inhabitants are Lutherans.

The revenue of Greitz is 140,000 florins; of Schleiz 200,000 florins; of Lobenstein 210,000; and of Köstritz 60,000.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is, 206 men for the elder line, and 538 for the younger.

The government is monarchical and constitutional. The diet consists of three deputies of the nobles, and four of the towns, for Greitz; of three of the nobles, and three of the towns, for Schleiz; of the same, for Lobenstein and Ebersdorf; and for Gera, of six deputies of the nobles, and two of the town, Gera.

There is one minister at Greitz, who has the titles of president of the prince's cabinet, of the government, the exchequer, the consistory, and the department of taxation. At Schleiz, and at Ebersdorf, the cabinet consists of three individuals.

At Reuss-Greitz, there is a marshal of the court; at Schleiz, a marshal of the house; at Lobenstein and Ebersdorf, a marshal of the house, an equerry, and a court-cavalier.

Gera is the chief place of the principalities of Reuss; it is a handsome town, containing 11,000 inhabitants, and carrying on active manufactures and trade. In the neighbourhood is the magnificent valley of the Elster. The agreeable baths of Ronneburg are in the vicinity. The waters are ferruginous, and are used both internally and externally.

CHAPTER XLVI.

THE GRAND DUCHY OF OLDENBURG.

The Ruling Family. Provinces and Population; Births and Deaths in 1833. *Religion; Educational Institutions. Army. Form of Government; Ministers and Officers of the Court.*

The grand-ducal house of Oldenburg is of the Lutheran religion. The present grand duke is Augustus, born in 1783, who succeeded to the throne in 1829. He has been three times married; first, to Adelaide, princess of Anhalt-Bernburg-Schaumburg, who died 1820; secondly, to Ida, the sister of his late wife, who died 1828; and, thirdly, to Cecilia, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus IV., formerly king of Sweden. He has two daughters by his first wife, of whom Amelia is queen of Greece; one son, Peter, the heir-apparent, by his second; and one by his third.

The following is a view of the provinces of Oldenburg, and of their population:—

	Area in Geog. Sq. Miles.	Population.	Towns.	Market Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
1. Oldenburg with Knip-hausen....	99·20	* 207,300	7	8	650	34,416
2. Lubeck or Eutin.....	8	† 18,692	1	1	82	3,250
3. Birkenfeld	8·80	24,515	1	1	86	4,283
Total	116	250,507	9	10	818	41,949

In the duchy of Oldenburg itself, there were 7052 births in 1833; of these 3646 were male, and 3406 female; there were only 4852 deaths.

The mass of the population are Lutherans, but there are 70,880 Catholics, and 2314 members of the Reformed church.

With the exception of 980 Jews, all the inhabitants are Germans.

* According to the census of 1833.

† According to the census of 1828.

There is a Lutheran general superindantship, 3 superintendantships, and 101 parishes. There is a superintendant of the Reformed church, and 4 parishes. The Catholics have a general deanery, and 37 parishes.

There are 2 gymnasiums, 4 classical schools, a normal school, 2 high-town schools, a seminary for schoolmasters, and a military academy.

The revenue is 1,500,000 florins: there is no public debt.

The army consists of 2 regiments of infantry, 1½ batteries of artillery, and a corps of land-dragoons.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 2177 men.

The government is monarchical, without representatives. The law of primogeniture regulates the succession, from which, however, females are excluded.

There are two cabinet-ministers, and two privy-councillors of the cabinet.

The chief officers of court are, a grand equerry, a grand chamberlain, a marshal, an equerry, and a vice-grand-master.

The general aspect of this country is low, sandy, and marshy; and it is intersected with canals and dikes, which are necessary to drain off the water, and to protect it against inundation. Although agriculture is the chief pursuit of the inhabitants, it is said not to raise corn enough for its domestic wants. Oldenburg, the capital, is a well-built city, with 6600 inhabitants; it has a fine cathedral and a new palace; in its vicinity have been found colossal masses of stone, and other relics of the ancient inhabitants of the North.

The reigning family is one of the oldest in Europe; the first count of Oldenburg built the city of that name in 1155, and his posterity have swayed the sceptre of Denmark.

CHAPTER XLVII.

THE GRAND DUCHY OF LUXEMBURG.

The Ruling Family. Area and Population. Races. Religion. Towns. Budget. Army. Form of Government.

By the treaty of Vienna, this duchy was made over to the king of Holland, in 1815; a stipulation being exacted at the same time, that he should give up all claims on the dominions of Nassau. The treaty of 1831, which has not yet been finally settled, alienated this duchy from Belgium, and it is still in the hands of the king of Holland, but its strong fortress is garrisoned by Prussian soldiers.

It is divided into three circles, which are again subdivided into 25 cantons, and 314 communalties.

The area of Luxemburg is 108·60 German square miles. The population in 1835, was 315,000, who are Walloons, for the most part, there being only 19,370 Germans, and who, with the exception of 450 Jews, are all Catholics. There are 16 towns, 6 market-towns, 314 congregations, 809 villages and hamlets, and 48,710 houses. The capital, which, since 1814, has been one of the fortresses of the German confederacy, contained, in 1821, 11,430 inhabitants, not including the garrison.

The revenue amounts to 1,800,000 florins. The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 2556 men.

The government is monarchical and representative.

Agriculture is not here in an advanced state, and it is necessary to import some supply of food annually. The breed of horses is good and considerable, and the sheep are numerous. Some employment is afforded to the inhabitants by the iron mines, which are said to produce about 10,000 tons of the metal annually. The manufactures are chiefly weaving, linen-spinning, and paper-making.

This duchy is chiefly remarkable from the character of its fortress, which is reputed one of the most important in Europe, both from its situation, and from its artificial strength. It has occupied public attention recently, in consequence of the negotiations following the separation of Belgium from Holland.

Some imprudent manifestations lately made by a portion of the inhabitants, have given offence to the Prussian government; —and, as is generally the case in such matters, the individuals will, probably, injure themselves alone, without at all affecting the issue of the great question in which they are interested, otherwise than by rendering it more unpalatable and remote.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

PRINCIPALITY OF LIPPE.

The Ruling Family. Districts; Population; Towns. Religion. Budget; Army. Form of Government; Officers of Government, and of the Court.

THE ruling family of Lippe is of the Protestant religion. The present prince is Leopold, born 1796, who, under the guardianship of his mother, succeeded to his father, April 4, 1802. He married, 1820, Emilia, princess of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, born April 28, 1800, by whom he has eight children; Leopold, the heir-apparent, was 1821. This prince has one brother, Frederic, who was born in 1797, and who is now an officer of the Austrian army.

The territory of Lippe comprises $20\cdot^{40}$ square miles, and is divided into 12 bailiwicks. The population, in 1828, was 76,718. There are 6½ towns*, 6 market-towns, 44 churches, and 12,218 houses. The capital, Detmold, contains 2400 inhabitants. The inhabitants, with the exception of 5100 Lutherans, and 1600 Catholics, are all members of the Reformed church.

The revenue is 490,000 florins; the public debt, 700,000 florins.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 690 men.

The government is monarchical and representative; the constitution was granted, 1819. The diet consists of seven deputies of the nobles, seven of the towns, and seven of the villages, forms one chamber, and deliberates on legislation and taxation.

The chief officers of government are, a president of the government and exchequer, a director of the chancery of justice and criminal tribunal, and a director of the consistory.

The chief officers of court are, a marshal, and a captain of the castle.

* 6½ towns. So described by Hassel and Ritter. The remaining half of one of these towns is probably situated in a neighbouring principality.

CHAPTER XLIX.

PRINCIPALITY OF SCHAUENBURG-LIPPE.

The Ruling Family. Districts and Population. Towns. Religion. Budget. Army. Form of Government. Ministers.

The ruling house of Schauenburg-Lippe is of the Protestant religion. The present prince is George William, born in 1784, who, under the guardianship of his mother, succeeded to the crown in 1787. In 1816, he married Ida, princess of Waldeck, by whom he has five children; Adolphus, the heir-apparent, was born in 1817. He has two sisters, one of whom, Wilhelmina, is married to the count of Munster.

The territory of this principality comprises $9^{\cdot 75}$ square miles, and is divided into six bailiwicks. The population is 26,000; the capital, Bückeburg, contains 4227 inhabitants. There are 2 towns, 3 market-towns, 99 villages, and 4250 houses. The inhabitants are all Lutherans, with the exception of 3600 members of the Reformed church, and about 100 Catholics.

The revenue is 215,000 florins, which is principally furnished by the domains.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 249 men.

The government is monarchical and representative.

The ministers are, a director of the government and of the chancery of justice, a director of the exchequer, and a director of the consistory.

The name of this state is variously described by different authorities. Schnabel and Malchus call it Schauenburg; Ritter denominates it Schaumburg or Sauenburg*; and Hassel also entitles it Schaumburg.

* In his complete and most useful "Geographisch Statistiches Lexikon," (Leipzig, 1836). Dr. Benjamin Ritter, the author, must not be confounded with a very distinguished geographer and philosopher, Charles Ritter.

CHAPTER L.

THE COUNTSHIP OF BENTINCK.

A Half-Sovereignty. The Ruling Family. Population.

THIS is one of the smallest states in Europe, and was only acknowledged as such by the Diet in 1826*. It is designated by Balbi as the "Seigneury of Kniphausen." It adjoins the duchy of Oldenburg, and has some possessions in that country, as well as in Brabant, Guelderland, and Overyssel. The capital of this state is called Kniphausen, and is said to be a handsome residence, with about fifty inhabitants†.

Bentinck is a *half*-sovereignty: the count is bound to do homage for his territory to the duke of Oldenburg. The present count is Gustavus, born in 1809, who, as his elder brother William had resigned his pretensions to the crown, succeeded his father, October 22, 1835. William, the elder brother, is now, we believe, an American citizen, and an agriculturist in the county of Warren, in Missouri: another brother, Frederic, is an officer in the Hanoverian army.

The territory of Bentinck consists of the lordship of Varel, comprehending $2\cdot\frac{80}{}$ German square miles, and containing 6000 inhabitants; and of the lordship of Kniphausen, comprehending $\frac{17}{20}$ German square miles, and containing 3100 inhabitants.

* The republic of San Marino, in Italy, is the smallest state in Europe. It covers an area of one and a half German miles, and contains 7000 inhabitants. An amusing picture of it has been given by the late historian, Dr. Gillies, in Seward's "Anecdotes," vol. ii. p. 247.

† Balbi, *Abrégé de Geographie*, p. 201.

CHAPTER LI.

THE FREE TOWNS.

FRANKFORT: *Territory and Population; Religion; Form of Government; Revenue; Army.* LUBECK: *Territory and Population; Religion; Towns; Form of Government; Army; Revenue.* BREMEN: *Territory and Population; Births and Deaths in* 1833; *Form of Government; Army; Budget.* HAMBURG: *Territory and Population; Religion; Towns; Form of Government; Army; Revenue.*

FRANKFORT.

FRANKFORT has been a free town of the German empire since 1154, and its rights and privileges were confirmed at the peace of Westphalia. In 1815, it became, by virtue of a declaration of the Congress of Vienna, one of the free towns of the German confederacy, and was chosen for the seat of the Diet.

Its territory comprises $4^{.93}$ German square miles, and contains 54,000 inhabitants, 1 town, 2 market-towns, $5\frac{1}{2}$ villages, and 4700 houses, (which, in 1832, were insured for 42,684,450 florins). The town itself contains 45,000 inhabitants, not including strangers: the greater part are Lutherans; of the Reformed church there are 2000; of Catholics, 6000; and of Jews, 5200. In 1833, there were 1062 births and 1230 deaths.

The form of government is democratic; according to the constitution of May, 1816, the highest power is vested in the body of Christian inhabitants. The legislative chamber consists of 20 senators, 29 members of the permanent committee of citizens, and 45 members, chosen from the Christian community. The senate, which is the executive, consists of 42 members, who are divided into three benches; namely, 14 sheriffs (*Schöffe*), 14 young senators, and 14 others (*Rathsverwandten*). The two burgomasters are chosen from the whole body of the senate; the elder from the first bench, and the younger from the second.

The permanent committee of 51, consists of citizens who must be Christians of an authorized denomination, and of at least six lawyers.

The revenue is 760,000 florins.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy, 475 men.

In Frankfort, as in some other German cities, are public burial-grounds, provided with houses in which every arrangement is made, in order to assist in the restoration to life, if any spark should still remain in the body. At Frankfort, the fingers of the corpse (which lies a certain time in the coffin previously to interment in a chamber appointed for the purpose,) are placed in the handle of a bell-rope, attached to an alarm-clock, which last hangs in the room of an attendant who is placed to watch. When a citizen dies, his family give notice to the authorities: they remove the body very soon to the building within the cemetery, where it is well attended throughout, and every means afforded of aiding resuscitation.

LUBECK.

THE ancient town of Lubeck has been independent since 1226. In 1241, it became a part of, and, indeed, the capital of the Hanse confederacy. Since 1815, it has been received into the number of the free towns of the German confederacy. It is the seat of the supreme court of appeal for the free towns.

Its territory comprises 6¾ German square miles, and is inhabited by 46,503 Germans, who are all Lutherans, with the exception of 300 members of the Reformed church, 400 Catholics, and 400 Jews. There are 2 towns, 68 villages and hamlets, and 6437 houses. In the capital, there are 25,000 inhabitants; in Travemünde, 1100; and in the part of Bergedorf, which belongs to Lubeck, 5803.

The government is democratical, and is in the hands of the senate and the citizens generally: its form was established by the compact (*Bürgerrecess*) 1669. The senate is the supreme administrative and executive power; it is composed of 20 members, namely, 4 burgomasters and 16 councillors; the two syndici and

the procurator have no voice. There are twelve colleges of citizens.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy is 406 men.

The revenue of Lubeck is 400,000 florins; and the public debt, 3,000,000 florins.

If the answers supplied to the Poor Law Commissioners are correct, the mortality at Lubeck is only 1 in 56, the births are 1 in 53½, and the marriages 1 in 177. The deaths under the age of one year are reported as only 1 in 7. These statements, however, as Mr. Senior remarks, do not appear to rest on enumeration.

Before a man is allowed to marry, he must prove that he is in regular employ, which will enable him to maintain a wife; and he must also become a burgher, and equip himself in the uniform of the burgher guard, which, together, may cost him nearly four pounds sterling.

As an illustration of the difficult subject of the *diet* of public institutions, I shall give here the allowance at the *Poor* and *Workhouse*, for every individual *daily*:—1½ lb. of coarse rye bread, 2½ lb. of vegetables or porridge, according to the season, and sometimes rice; 1 bottle of weak beer; and monthly, also, 1½ lb. of meat, and ½ lb. of butter, lard, or fat, to cook the food with.

BREMEN,

Is benefited by the commerce of the Weser, at the mouth of which river it is situated. The number of vessels which entered this port in 1829, was 881, of which 110 were from Great Britain, and 321 from North Germany*.

Bremen became independent so early as the reign of Otho I., but the town was long claimed by the archbishops of Bremen and dukes of Brunswick, and was first universally recognised as independent, in 1731. Its territory, which, in 1827, was somewhat enlarged, comprises 3·² German square miles, and contains 52,000 inhabitants, of whom 35,000 are Lutherans, 15,000 members of the Reformed church, and 1500 Catholics. There is 1 town, 1

* See Murray's valuable "Encyclopædia of Geography," p. 705.

market-town, and 58 villages and hamlets. The town itself contains 40,000 inhabitants. In 1833, there were 1347 births, 1094 deaths, and 392 marriages.

The form of government is democratic. The legislative power is vested in the convention of citizens (*Bürgerconvent*), the executive in a senate, which consists of four burgomasters, 2 syndici, and 25 councillors.

A body of 485 men is the contingent to the army of the confederacy.

	Dollars.	Gr.
The Revenue is - - - - - -	569,770	59
The Expenditure is - - - - - -	593,039	18
Deficit - - -	23,268	31

The debts amount to about 3,000,000 florins.

Education for the poor is provided gratuitously; and the poor are compelled to send their children to school, on pain of forfeiting all claim to parochial relief, or by other mode of punishment. There is a *Poorhouse*; among the inmates about 220 *destitute able-bodied* individuals were recently maintained, and were obliged to work for the benefit of the institution.

HAMBURG,

Is said to have been founded by Charlemagne. It forms a central point of communication between the northern and middle states of Europe. In the thirteenth century, it entered into a treaty with Lubeck, which laid the foundation of the famous Hanseatic League. It continued to increase in prosperity, until the fatal epoch of 1807, when the French army entered it, and Napoleon seized, in his usual fashion, on the public property. Attempting, in 1813, to throw off the hateful yoke, the good Hamburghers suffered new calamities—the traces of which are still imprinted on their fortunes and recollections.

This is the most cosmopolitan city in the world; the one in which foreigners of all nations feel most at home, and the one in which they are most likely to be understood. Although the greatest commercial city in Germany, it has no air of ostentation;

a general tone of simplicity prevails on the surface. The climate is not very favourable, but the surrounding country is beautiful, and its peasants retain many a picturesque relic of the ancient costume.

Hamburg entered into the Hanse confederacy in 1241; its celebrated maritime law was established, 1262; and in 1815, it was declared one of the German free towns. Its territory, including its share of Bergedorf, comprises $7^{\cdot 10}$ German square miles, and contains 150,000 inhabitants, 134,840 of whom are Lutherans, 4050 of the Reformed church, 3060 Catholics, 550 Mennonites, and 7500 Jews. The town of Hamburg itself contains 122,000 inhabitants. There are in the territory, 2 towns, 2 market-towns, 18 churches, 50 villages and hamlets, and 12,651 houses.

The form of government is democratic; the supreme power, according to the act of 1712, and other compacts, is divided between councillors and citizens. The council consists of 36 members, of whom 4 burgomasters, and 24 councillors, are *in senatu*, and have a seat and vote; the other members are 4 syndici, 1 prothonotary, 1 archivarius, and 2 secretaries, who only possess a *votum consultivum*, and who are *de senatu*.

The contingent to the army of the confederacy, is 1298 men. It has, moreover, a regular army of 1050 men, 185 horsemen, and a civic militia. The revenue is 1,500,000 florins; the public debt 13,500,000.

In 1832, about 25,000*l.* was distributed in weekly relief amon registered poor, amounting, on an average, to 2900 individuals, or heads of families. Half of the adult paupers appear to have been foreigners. The want of a workhouse is lamented by some. The number of persons buried in the same year at the expense of the *Institution for the Poor*, was 459, or nearly one-tenth of the average number of deaths. The poor are extremely numerous, their dwellings are very generally in cellars; but the city abounds in excellent institutions for the relief of suffering, among which, the *General Hospital* deserves particular observation, and is usually considered by the medical men of Germany as one of the best, if not the best, of all their institutions for the sick.

IN the above notices, as well as generally throughout a work so varied in its scope, we have probably committed some unintentional inaccuracies, which the candid, and the best-informed, will be the first to pardon; such errors we shall gladly correct, if another opportunity should present itself. More particularly we beg to apologize to any individual, of whose name a careless or improper use may have been made; as well as to any members of a government, whose measures we may have misinterpreted. This latter deference will appear ludicrous to some persons, who seem to think that kings and ministers are necessarily void of all feeling or conscience, and that the delicacy which is due to the lowest individual, is thrown away upon the highest. Having uniformly sought to state the truth, without any voluntary admixture of party bias, our picture of Germany is painted with various colours; in some places warmly glowing, and in others deepening into shade; but on the whole, presenting a cheerful prospect. All political partisans will be offended with a book which upholds no exclusive doctrine, and which endeavours to render equal justice to all; but I only seek for the judgment of those who will allow to others, as well as to themselves, that freedom of opinion which is often most loudly demanded by those who are the least disposed to concede it.

APPENDIX.

No. I.

Comparative View of the Proportion of Taxes paid yearly by each individual, taking the average of the various States of Germany, and for the sake of illustration, of the other States of Europe.

	Florins in Convention Money.
In Great Britain, the inhabitant pays yearly	18
France	$11\frac{2}{3}$
Holland	10
Belgium	10
Hamburg	$9\frac{7}{12}$
Frankfort	$9\frac{2}{12}$
Lubeck	$7\frac{11}{12}$
Bremen	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Spain	$5\frac{3}{4}$
Prussia	$5\frac{1}{2}$
Saxony and Hesse	$5\frac{1}{12}$
Bavaria and Hesse-Darmstadt	$4\frac{5}{8}$
Sardinia	$4\frac{3}{4}$
Denmark and Saxe Weimar	$4\frac{7}{12}$
Baden	$4\frac{3}{8}$
Brunswick, Hese-Homburg, and San Marino	$4\frac{1}{6}$
Anhalt-Cöthen, and Anhalt-Bernburg	$3\frac{5}{6}$
Austria and Portugal	$3\frac{3}{4}$
Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	$3\frac{2}{3}$
Tuscany, Reuss, and Lippe-Schaumburg	$3\frac{1}{2}$
Hanover and Wurtemberg	$3\frac{6}{12}$
Nassau and Lucca	$3\frac{1}{4}$
Oldenburg and Waldeck	$3\frac{1}{8}$
Sweden and Norway, and Lippe-Detmold	$3\frac{1}{12}$
Saxe-Meiningen	3
Russia, Hohenzollern-Hechingen, and Lichtenstein	$2\frac{7}{9}$
Modena, Parma, and Cracow	$2\frac{2}{3}$
Roman States, and the two Schwarzburgs	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Turkey, and Mecklenburg-Strelitz	$2\frac{1}{12}$
Anhalt-Dessau	2
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Switzerland	$1\frac{1}{4}$

I am indebted for this Table, to the excellent "General Statistik," of Schnabel, vol. ii. p. 210 (1833). By an error of the press he has twice represented Mecklenburg-Schwerin.

No. II.

Comparative View of the Proportion of the Military to the whole Population in the various States of Germany, and in the other States of Europe.

In Denmark, the soldier is	1 in 50 of the whole.
Sweden	1 — 53
Wurtemberg	1 — 59
Poland	1 — 60
Prussia	1 — 68
Bavaria	1 — 69
Russia	1 — 70
Austria	1 — 100
France	1 — 110
England	1 — 140 (overrated.)
Kingdom of the two Sicilies	1 — 200
Tuscany	1 — 400
Roman States	1 — 500

For the above table, we must refer to the authority of Schnabel, in his "General Statistik," vol. ii. p. 257.

No. III.

Comparative Rate of Agricultural Wages in Germany, and in other States of Europe.

	Kreutzers*.
In East Prussia, the day-labourer earns about	14
Mecklenburg	from 18½ to 21
About Magdeburg (in 1830)	0 — 22½
Rhine Country	0 — 24
Labourer in the Rhine vineyards	36 — 0
Holstein	21 — 26
Mark of Brandenburg	0 — 26½
Black Forest	30 — 40
France	35 — 42
Canton of Berne, and of the Valais	41 — 49
England	48 — 60

* For the purpose of comparison the kreutzer, may be calculated as a half-penny. The above table is from Rau's "Lehrbuch der Politischen Oekonomie," vol. i. p. 194 (1833).

No. IV.

Comparative Table of the Proportion of Legitimate to Illegitimate Births, in various Countries and Cities of Germany, and of other European States. Most of the authorities are derived from the Foreign Returns made to the Poor Law Commission, printed in 1834, and digested by Mr. Senior.

Countries.			
In Belgium, there are	21	to 1	
Courland, in Russia	20	— 1	
England	19	— 1	
Sweden	16	— 1	
North Holland	15	— 1	
Norway	14	— 1	
France	13	— 1	about.
Prussia	13	— 1	
Wales	12	— 1	about.
Austria	9	— 1	
Denmark	$9\frac{661}{1000}$	— 1	
Mecklenburg	9	— 1	
Bohemia	7	— 1	
Saxony	7	— 1	
Wurtemberg	$7\frac{1}{15}$	— 1	
Azores	7	— 1	
Hesse-Damstadt (according to Schön)	4	— 1	
Cities.			
Gottenburg	16	— 1	
Manchester (according to Roberton)	12	— 1	
Bremen	11	— 1	about.
Ostend	9	— 1	
Havre	9	— 1	about.
Nantes	8	— 1	
Berlin (according to Casper)	7	— 1	
Brussels	7	— 1	about.
Frankfort	$6\frac{7}{10}$	— 1	
Dantzic	$6\frac{1}{2}$	— 1	about.
Lubeck	6	— 1	about.
Copenhagen, (in 1822)	5	— 1	
Towns of Courland	5	— 1	
Marseilles	5	— 1	
Hamburg	$4\frac{5}{8}$	— 1	
Madrid (Benoiston de Chateauneuf)	4	— 1	about.
Paris	3	— 1	about.
Lisbon (according to Balbi)	2	— 1	about.
Munich (in 1823 and 1834)	1	— 1	about.

No. V.

I am indebted to the comprehensive and candid "Statistique de la Grande Bretagne et de l'Irlande," by Mr. Moreau de Jonnès, for the following Table, which shows the number of Scholars attending Schools in the principal European States, and their proportion to the entire population: but I cannot vouch for the correctness of the several data on which his results are founded,—and least of all respecting England.

Countries.	Years.	Number of Scholars.	Inhabitants.
England	1833	2,957,921	1 to 5
The United Kingdom	1833	4,035,613	1 — 6
Switzerland, Canton de Vaud	1828	25,590	1 — 6
Baden	1825	150,000	1 — 7
Bavaria	1825	503,172	1 — 7
Wurtemberg	1827	193,185	1 — 8
Ireland	1833	857,692	1 — 9
The Low Countries	1826	640,897	1 — 10
Scotland	1833	220,000	1 — 10
Prussia	1825	1,278,000	1 — 10
Holland	1812	190,000	1 — 10
Holland	1835	304,559	1 — 8
Switzerland, Canton of Appenzell	1827	3,502	1 — 10
Moravia	1822	150,000	1 — 13
Bohemia	1811	284,720	1 — 13
Austria Proper	1820	154,000	1 — 15
Empire of Austria	1822	2,021,900	1 — 16
France	1834	1,907,000	1 — 17
Denmark	1825	61,000	1 — 30
Kingdom of Naples	1818	74,513	1 — 45
Kingdom of Poland	1823	34,523	1 — 100
Portugal	1819	39,000	1 — 109
Hungary	1835	28,963	1 — 350
Spain	1803	29,900	1 — 350
Empire of Russia	1828	67,500	1 — 794

NOTE on p. 78.

THE first paragraph, and the notes in this chapter, proceed in no degree from Baron A. W. von Schlegel.

NOTE on p. 173. *The Supranaturalists in Germany.*

THE account given in the text of the Supranaturalists, is not entirely correct. The Supranaturalists in Germany correspond, in a certain degree, to the term Orthodox in England; and the above description of their tenets does not apply by any means to the mass of individuals who constitute that party. Some of them may entertain peculiar notions as to original sin; but it ought not to have been so broadly affirmed, that the Supranaturalists deny so essential a doctrine.—Dr. Hengstenberg, of the university of Berlin, is one of the ablest representatives of this party, and is the editor of a weekly journal, called the "Evangelische Kirchen Zeitung," which may, perhaps, be considered as a recognised interpreter or organ of these opinions.—Dr. Neander, also an eminent professor at Berlin, is another distinguished writer of nearly the same views, espousing similar doctrines, but expounding them in a more subdued form, and in a milder tone.

NOTE on p. 182. *The Pietists.*

THE Pietists formerly bore to the Lutheran church the same relation which the so-called Evangelical portion of the Church of England bears to the general community of that church. They placed a greater stress upon certain tenets than did the old orthodox body: their influence appears to have been at first beneficial, so long as Spener and Franke survived; but they soon degenerated.

THE END.

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